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The Week

A CALM and rational survey of what America has done during the weeks since the declaration of war would disclose a much more cheering state of the case than that habitually pictured by our newspaper alarmists. It is certain that the Allies take a more hopeful view of American efforts, thus far, than do many of our dolorous gentlemen of the press. A French or English observer would say that the United States had promptly realized what it could best do and soonest do and had set about the work with commendable vigor. This has not been a military nation. It could not immediately throw a large army into the field. The raising and equipping and training of troops had to be provided for, but other things came first. The earliest items on our war programme were distinctly announced from the beginning by the Washington authorities, and have been acquiesced in by the sensible public. Credits, ships, supplies—these were the things upon which Americans could first expend their energy, and who shall say that they have not done it in a prompt and wholehearted way? Even the recruiting for the army has been large—all the uncertainties of method once considered. And as for the navy, enlistments soon brought it up to authorized strength, while the marines crowded in faster than they could be handled and exceeded the numbers called for. It looks as if the people had a sort of instinctive strategic sense in this matter, and had flung themselves first upon the work most needed. And with young men by the thousand all over the land fairly straining at the leash until told what they can most effectively do for their country—whether it be work in shops or on the land or in special technical pursuits or actually in uniform—it is simply preposterous to indulge in all the wailings to which we have been so freely treated.

AMERICA is moving and America is in earnest. Neither fear nor vainglory is the impelling motive, but a gradually deepening sense of what is at stake—what is, in Lincoln's phrase, to be either "nobly won or meanly lost." He called it "the last, best hope of the earth," meaning thereby human freedom and the full enjoyment of liberty by every nation. That something corresponding to this is involved in the struggle upon which this country has entered, the plain people of the United States are now well convinced. They see a chance to strike down military autocracy, and to obtain a peace which shall be lasting because established by the free consent of self-governing peoples. It is for these objects that Americans are willing to endure all necessary hardships, holding nothing back. And to prophets of evil who talk of possible defeat in the high emprise, they would say, as the final indication of their good hope, in the words of Coleridge: "Do you ask us to believe that this world is governed by the Devil?"

SECRETARY LANSING'S assurance of our freedom from any agreement with the Allies regarding the making of peace will not cast the smallest shadow over the welcome to our visitors which reached a climax Friday night. It merely puts in the clear a position which is inevitable for us and which statesmen of the calibre of Balfour and Viviani will understand without labored explanation. Along with it goes, as the Secretary was careful to say, the common-sense obligation to coöperate with our associates in making peace as in making war. To engage in a great joint enterprise and then to act alone in the most important phase of it would be a bit ridiculous. But the Missions from London and Paris require no written or oral pledges of our attitude. They have received in the popular and official welcome of these past weeks, and particularly of these past days, the earnest of our alliance with them in the purpose of ending as speedily as possible the vast conflict. For European Powers, with their complicated network of interests, the treaties against a separate peace were only ordinary prudence. With us, the Allies need nothing more than the *entente cordiale* of which they must now be in no doubt.

WITH the nation-wide distribution to banks and bankers of the application forms for subscription to the war loan, the canvass for this important undertaking may be said to have begun. The personal tour of the Secretary of the Treasury through the Middle West, to speak at public meetings, is a wise arrangement; but the intensive work will undoubtedly be done through the cheerfully volunteered services of bankers and business men in every Federal Reserve district. This work should be unremitting. It should involve (according to the example set, not only in our own Civil War loans, but in the European war loans of the past two years) the putting of the bonds on sale at every available place where people gather; the forming of clubs of merchants, workmen, and other individuals, to promote the sale; the placarding of post offices, hotels, railway stations, public halls, and other meeting places. Above all, the two primary inducements—that this is a call for the people's patriotic support, and that it is also an offer of the soundest and surest investment security in the world—should at no time be allowed to escape the public mind. What is needed in this transaction is not only the placing by great capitalists and rich institutions of their surplus at the Government's disposal, but such a showing of the American people's resources as a whole, and of their readiness to stand behind their Government, as shall convince both our allies and the enemy of what our entry into the war really means.

THE food shortage, as a factor for speedy peace in Europe, has apparently been eliminated by official declarations from both sides. For the Central Powers, the food dictator, Batocki, states, "It is absolutely certain that we shall manage till the next harvest." For England, during the present year, Lloyd George has announced that with reasonable care there is no danger of starvation. When we come to the outlook for the year 1918 there is a striking difference in tone. Whereas Lloyd George de-

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clares that in 1918 England will be independent of food imports, Batocki speaks of unsatisfactory conditions in Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria. One rather unexpected admission by the German food dictator gives force to the agitation in this country for a restriction on food exports to neutrals. "Under the pressure of our enemies, there has been a decrease in imports from neutral countries. America intends to intensify this situation further, but we must put up with this." Thus it would appear that the entrance of this country into the war is, after all, something which Reventlow cannot dismiss with a snap of the fingers. But more than that, since Germany need not worry about her food until the next harvest, and yet has to take into consideration American pressure, this must have reference to a period several months hence; whence it would appear that Germany does not expect to win the war in the immediate future.

A REDUCTION in passenger schedules in order to economize track metal, rolling stock, and railway labor for the use of the Allies abroad may have to come, but to speak of this at the present moment is very much in keeping with the general tendency to learn the "lessons" of the war by doing right off whatever the belligerent nations were compelled to do after two years of war, and in disregard of the difference in local conditions. We have today 265,000 miles of railway, as against 40,000 for Germany, 24,000 for Great Britain, and less than 20,000 for France outside the occupied territory. The strain on the railways in the belligerent countries has been incomparably greater than anything we can foresee in our own case. The French lines, for instance, have to bear the traffic of armies of perhaps five million men—French and British—and the number of men and the amount of supplies they have had to carry since the beginning of the war are very great. The German railways have had to bear the additional strain of transport involved in the shifting back and forth of huge forces fighting on interior lines. Little wonder that civilian railway travel should be reduced to a minimum. With our own great mileage it ought to be possible to effect economies in traffic without resorting to too radical cutting down of passenger accommodations.

WE can see the political pot boiling in Germany more plainly than for some time past, because the press is allowed an unwonted freedom of discussion. An early reform of the obsolete Prussian franchise seems now to be confidently expected, while proposals to introduce something like the principle of a responsible Ministry—that is, a Ministry answerable to the Reichstag, and not merely to the Emperor—are advocated widely. On this point an explicit warning is given by the *Frankfurter Zeitung*. It recalls the hard fact that no constitutional change can be had without the approval of the Bundesrath, which body is dominated by the Prussian members, who in their turn are under the control of the Kaiser. This is, in effect, an admission that Germany is ruled in all important matters by the autocratic power of one man. It is significant, however, that the whole agitation for improvements in the political machinery of Germany has not been able to still the debate about peace and its terms. In fact, the latter question is more and more displacing the former. If the Kaiser, by his letter to the Chancellor, enjoining upon him to make preparations "at once" for a "far-reaching change of the Constitution" as soon as the war was over, hoped to stop newspaper arguing about how and when to end the war, he was disappointed. The debate is raging; and the demand for a definition of the Government's position has become so urgent that it is stated that Bethmann-Hollweg will take the Reichstag and the Empire into his confidence. The outside world will be eager to hear what the Chancellor has to say, but will pitch its expectations low in view of his previous unsatisfactory performances in that line.

FOR the second time within a few weeks, a Nationalist candidate for Parliament has been defeated by a Sinn Fein candidate in a district which had hitherto returned a Nationalist unopposed. No clearer indication is needed of the dangerous state of sentiment that is being nourished in Ireland by the Government's lack of resolution in dealing with Home Rule. The party of moderation, led by John Redmond, is being supplanted by the party of revolution, with disastrous effects on England's military efforts and on the moral position of the Allies. A bitterly discontented Ireland means a refusal of recruits on the one hand, and on the other the maintenance of a large army of occupation which could be well employed on the battle-line. Before the world England is in the position of sending missionaries to Russia to plead for internal harmony in behalf of the general cause, but hesitating to make the necessary sacrifice of prejudices within her own house. Can it be that the old audacity has altogether passed out of Lloyd George? Otherwise it is difficult to explain his hesitation at a time when the boldest course in the national interest is sure to elicit popular support. The Lloyd George of other days would have cut the Gordian knot by granting justice to Ireland and leaving to Ulster the odium of rebellion in the midst of war.

THE Australian election has settled it that for an indefinite period the problems of the Commonwealth will be in the hands of the National Labor and Liberal Coalition, led by Premier Hughes. The Coalition Government—formed by Hughes and Cook after the defeat of Hughes on the conscription referendum and the split in the Labor party between Official Labor and National Labor elements—was forced to a dissolution of Parliament by its inability to control the Senate. Latest returns show that the Liberals and National Labor have a joint majority of ten in the Senate over the Official Labor forces under F. G. Tudor. A recent Provincial election in New South Wales, won by the Government, had shown which way the wind was blowing. The platforms of the opposing forces did not materially differ, both promising to carry on the war vigorously, though the Official Labor wing wished to cleave to the volunteer system, while Hughes announced that he would arrange another conscription referendum if it seemed necessary. But the radicals who constituted a part of the Official Labor party were distrusted; and to change Governments now seemed to many likely, in the words of the Sydney *Telegraph*, "to precipitate a condition of chaos during a crisis."

A BITTER fight had to be waged before the framers of the Underwood tariff consented to remove the duty on objects of art. The proposed abolition of the free list through a flat 10 per cent. increase in duties will take us half-way back to where we were before the Underwood

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law. The revenue derived from a tax on art is inconsiderable, but the argument is supposedly that any amount of revenue derived from a tax on imports of luxuries is to be welcomed. But whereas the importation of works of art may be a luxury from our standpoint, their exportation may be very decidedly a necessity from the point of view of the Allied countries. Economic distress has weighed most heavily, perhaps, on the writers and artists of France. America must to-day be a very welcome market. To deprive them of that market is to impose on them a burden altogether disproportionate to the financial benefits we may expect to derive. What sense is there in lending money to the Allies and simultaneously depriving subjects of the Allies of an opportunity to make a living through their own efforts? England hesitated long before imposing restrictions on the import of articles of luxury from her allies, such as French silks. She yielded only because with her it was a case of saving absolute tonnage. All this aside from the fact that once we restore the tax on art, we shall have to wage the campaign for free importation all over again after the war.

CALIFORNIA is tightening up her Primary law. It was not quite so bad as the one Massachusetts had before the Bay State amended it to make impossible the voting by members of one party in the primary of another, but it went too far in that direction. By allowing voters to register without declaring their party affiliation, it made possible such confusion, not to say jugglery, as was exhibited last autumn, when Gov. Johnson's supporters urged Progressives to vote in the Republican primaries and thus do what they could to give him the nomination of both parties. It requires no argument to demonstrate the viciousness of such a practice. Johnson himself did not dare vote in the Republican primaries, for that would have deprived him of his Progressive standing, which, in the event of defeat, would have been embarrassing. The rank and file were under no such compulsion. If their idol lost in his contest for the Republican nomination, they could quietly resume their Progressive badges at the next election without incurring the ridicule that would have been heaped upon him. The law as amended not only puts an end to this looseness, but in addition provides that successful candidates shall sit only in the convention of the party in which they are registered, regardless of the number of nominations they have received. This is reasonable. One party at a time ought to be enough for any man.

THE outcome of the I. W. W. trial at Everett, Wash., is a vindication for the administration of justice on the Pacific Coast and of the spirit of fair play which is bound to assert itself in a community when once it has freed itself from panic. With the acquittal of the threescore defendants at Everett, a saner and healthier public sentiment should enter into the vexed relations between capital and labor, whose recent history on the Coast has been unsavory. There has been provocation on both sides, and violence on both sides, whether it has been labor violence through dynamite at Los Angeles or "law and order" violence at Seattle and Everett. It is a puzzle to us of the enslaved East that in the progressive States of the Pacific Coast, where so much pioneer work has been done towards the upbuilding of industrial justice, there should be frequently recurring crises involving guerrilla warfare with rifle and bomb, the suppression of free speech, and the misuse of the courts, as in the trial of the labor leader, Mooney, in San Francisco. But if it has been a case of violence begetting violence, the chances are that decisive action such as that which has taken place at Everett, and such as that which we expect in San Francisco, will break the evil chain.

THE tragedy of Foraker's career was not its blasting by the publication of the Standard Oil letters, sensational as that episode was. This had its tragic tinge, of course, and not least in the injustice of his falling victim to a course which was commonly followed by lawyer-politicians of note, while many a fellow-Senator of less ability escaped merely because of the turn of circumstance. But the real tragedy was not any single event. It lay in what turned out to be a permanent subordination of personal and political abilities and popularity to the fortunes of happier rivals. It was Foraker's lot to see man after man who had come up behind him step into the place which in the natural order of things he might well have thought to lay claim to himself. McKinley, Hanna, Taft, all were glad to have the orator weave magic spells for them, but although he was Governor of his and their State when they and other men destined for eminence were hardly heard of, they all went beyond him. He was asked to wait first for Sherman, a veteran, and then for McKinley, of his own generation. The latter's assassination rang down the curtain on the stage as it had been. The one opportunity for the Presidency which came to him he could not accept. A delegation of Blaine supporters awoke him early one morning during the Convention of 1888, with the news that the Blaine leaders had determined to break the deadlock between Sherman and their candidate by throwing their strength to Foraker. But he was bound to Sherman, and the lightning which struck Garfield in a similar situation did not strike him.

PROF. JOHN WILLIAMS WHITE was one of the few teachers who made Greek live. This he did in many ways. His students were taught, not so much to translate as to read, one of his most fruitful methods being insistence upon reading "at sight." He did not have the low ambition of the ordinary teacher of Greek or Latin, who is satisfied if his pupils can wrest something out of a passage and embalm it in more or less unidiomatic English. He took the whole of a rich civilization for his province. This did not mean that he required material equipment beyond the reach of others. Valuable as was his work for the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, and interesting as was the performance of "Œdipus" in Sanders Theatre, these were comparatively spectacular efforts. His real achievement lay in what he was able to accomplish day by day in the classroom. His utilization of the stereopticon showed his resourcefulness, but always it was the man behind—or in front of—the machine that counted. He was no mere showman. The combination of comprehensiveness and thoroughness in his teaching was proved by his practice of having his classes read a Greek author entire in a single year. Yet with all his effort and his distinguished service, he fought a losing battle. Even so, his career leaves a lesson. If Greek is ever to be restored to anything like its former place, it will be upon the shoulders of men like him.

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How to Float the War Loan

THE two-thousand-million 3½ per cent. war loan will have a term of thirty years, though with option reserved to the Government of redeeming it after fifteen years. It will be issued in denominations as small as $50, and subscriptions will be payable in four to six instalments. It will be free of taxation, and it is provided that, if any subsequent war loan should be issued at a higher interest rate, the present 3½ per cents may be converted into bonds bearing that higher rate. The relatively long term was probably unavoidable; not only in order to give the necessary standing with investors to a low-rate bond, but because, under the Loan act, the fixing of the term of United States bonds issued to make advances to our allies requires the fixing of an essentially similar maturity on the Allied obligations exchanged for them—which might have had prejudicial results, had the term been made shorter.

It is estimated that subscriptions already received to the United States loan have exceeded $600,000,000. This preliminary response was no doubt gratifying. Indeed, it was in some respects more so than the figures indicate, large as they have been; because these prompt and enthusiastic pledges of subscription came before either the length of time the bonds would run, or the denominations in which they would be issued, had been officially announced. The delay in announcing these particulars was unfortunate.

But these advance applications did not prove, as the newspapers somewhat impetuously declared, that the loan was virtually covered already, or that it was bound to be two or three times oversubscribed. Subscription to every European war loan of the past two years, whatever its terms and whatever its eventual results, has started out under exactly the same auspices. The "pull" would invariably come two or three weeks later, when capitalists whose support was assured beforehand had made their applications, and when the question arose, how to bring in the whole thrifty citizenship of the nation.

There are, in fact, certain obvious dangers in such initial over-enthusiasm. The practical consideration in placing this $2,000,000,000 loan is not so much the creating of a popular idea that the investor who delays his application may lose his chance to subscribe, as the stimulating of belief that subscription, to the extent of every citizen's available surplus funds, is a paramount duty. Premature assertions that the loan has already virtually been taken might easily encourage hesitation on the part of investors who are balancing as between United States 3½ per cents, and a 5 per cent. railway bond or a foreign war bond bearing even higher interest.

This is the reason why the present evidence of plans for a concerted, nation-wide canvass is reassuring. Such plans cannot be made too searching and comprehensive. They should particularly involve direct and personal appeal to the small investor. Germany has set the example in that undertaking. That Government's war loans, whose success in all the circumstances has been astonishing, were exploited through constant and unremitting newspaper advertisements, through appeals by public men and military leaders, and through personal canvass, conducted by Government agents distributed in all parts of the country.

The average number of separate subscriptions to Germany's first five loans was 3,600,000. The success of England's recent $5,000,000,000 loan was not a little promoted by public meetings for the purpose. But the United States itself may be said to have set the truly historic precedent when Jay Cooke, acting as agent for the Treasury in 1862, placed $415,000,000 of a Government war loan after its successful negotiation on the great city money markets had been almost despaired of by the Secretary.

There will be no sub-letting of the subscription contract this year, such as was tried in the Civil War. But the coming canvass can, nevertheless, take many a leaf out of the book of Jay Cooke and his 2,500 agents. Publicity of the most intensive sort; explanatory placards and stirring appeals in every post office, railway station, hotel, street corner, and public gathering-place—these were the methods which achieved what was in that day the unbelievable success of 1862. What most strikes the reader of historical narratives of that episode is the fact that the appeal to investors, large and small, directed itself primarily, not to arguments as to the large return on the investment, but to the absolute soundness of a security based on the present and future resources of the United States and upon the home-staying citizen's duty to support his Government in this way, while others of his fellow-citizens were supporting it with arms at the front.

The actual success of the $2,000,000,000 loan is not open to question; what has to be discovered is the manner in which that success may best be achieved. A simple illustration will indicate what should be the objective point—what was, indeed, the admitted objective in our own successful popular loans of the sixties and in those of Europe during the present war. If, as is not unreasonable, we suppose that a million American citizens are carrying idle bank deposit balances of $500 each, or a similar amount in actual cash, for which they have no immediate present use, then subscription of that sum by each to a Government loan would produce no less than $500,000,000, and with as little disturbance of the markets as occurred in Jay Cooke's canvass of 1862 or the recent war loans of England and Germany. The Treasury's task in the next seven weeks should be to get in personal and effective touch with this thrifty population, as well as with small investors.

The Russian Problem

AT Petrograd events are moving towards a final test between the Council of Workers and Delegates and the Provisional Government. The resignation of War Minister Guchkov and of Gen. Kornilov, commander of the Petrograd garrison, on the ground that their position had been made impossible by the Council's assumption of power in detailed matters of military policy and administration, may be the prelude to the resignation of the Provisional Government as a whole. So far as the latter is concerned, it is not a contest for supremacy. It is simply an attempt to force the Council either into joining with the Cabinet for the government of the country or else to assume that task, and with it the accompanying responsibility. At present the country, so far as it is ruled at all, is under a double authority. The Council has the real power for the moment, but it does not hold power so completely or so firmly that it dare take over the government. The Provisional Government has little organized power, but it embodies a potentiality which would make

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itself felt in the long run, and which the Council recognizes. In spite of the lofty tone assumed by the Council in speaking of the Provisional Government, it is plain that the Council needs the Cabinet. Indirectly, this has been admitted by the vote, a grudging vote to be sure, by which the Council declared some time ago for the maintenance of the Cabinet. More directly it is evinced in statements by leading members of the Council that they will not assume direct charge of the government because that would lead to civil war.

This does not mean that if the Council were to displace the Cabinet, the members of the latter, men like Lvov, Milyukov, Rodzianko, would raise the standard of counter-revolution. They are too patriotic and too wise to make such action conceivable even if their successors were to set to work at the immediate establishment of the Socialist republic and the elimination of the "bourgeoisie" to which these men belong. Their mere removal from the revolutionary ranks would be a tremendous blow at the revolution. Unorganized though their power may be as compared with the forces under the Council's control, Lvov, Milyukov, Rodzianko, and their associates do represent an element in Russian life which is indispensable to national reconstruction. And even Socialist orators have admitted that. The army has not been so completely revolutionized but that in part its men, and, more important, its officers, are held to the new régime because it embraces the leaders of liberal and progressive Russia. Military commanders who would not waver in their allegiance to the Provisional Goverment made up as it is to-day would become dangerous material for counter-revolutionary propaganda if the government passed formally into the hands of the International Socialists. This is virtually admitted by members of the Council when they declare that so far the principal concern has been to republicanize the army.

Nor must it be forgotten that in the conflict between the Provisional Government and the Council the latter is far from united. As a matter of fact, it is so evenly divided that on two occasions the change of a single vote among the forty-five members of the executive committee of the Council would have meant the establishment of harmonious coöperation with the Provisional Government in war policy. Some weeks ago the application for membership in the Council by Plekhanov and Deutsch, the founders of the Social-Democratic party in Russia, and ardently pro-Ally, was rejected by 23 votes to 22. Last Saturday the invitation of the Provisional Government for a Coalition Government was rejected by exactly the same vote. This sharp division will explain why even the extremists are careful to disclaim any intention of working for a separate peace; why they promise renewed military action against Germany as soon as the army has been reorganized and a general peace has been shown to be impossible; and why they condition their own action upon a general uprising of the proletariat of all Europe against their Governments in order to force peace. "It must not be Russia alone," peace leaders in the Council have told the representative of the New York *World* at Petrograd. "We will first learn the attitude of the Allied workers before naming the date of the conference. If held, this will be a real peace conference, dictating terms to our Governments." And again: "If we can get the French and British Socialists behind our plan——" These are significant "ifs."

We may take it, therefore, that the Council of Workers and Delegates does not really expect an uprising of the European masses which shall compel the belligerent Governments to make peace at once. What the Council is striving for is a restatement by the Allies of the terms of peace which shall reject the idea of annexations and punitive indemnities. This they expect to lead to a Socialist upheaval in Germany. Short of that, the cooler heads at Petrograd must recognize that their own revolution would not survive a separate peace with a monarchical Germany.

Mr. Choate

MR. CHOATE once said, characteristically, that when James C. Carter retired from practice, he made room for a thousand lawyers. Something of the same feeling of a great figure gone, and a large space left unfilled, must have been in the hearts of all who read on Tuesday morning of the death of Mr. Choate. His was a veritable euthanasia. Active to the end, the last four days of his life filled with exertions into which he poured the full measure of his patriotic emotion, he was as one asking life not to say good-night, but in some brighter clime bid him good-morning. Such a passing of such a man, well stricken in years, but surrounded by troops of loving friends, has nothing in it for tears or beating the breast; but only an appeal to let the mind rest upon what was so fair and noble.

The obituaries and the books will recount the details of Mr. Choate's long career. His brethren of the bar will tell of his legal triumphs, and seek once more to explain the source of his persuasiveness with juries and with judges. From England will come tributes to the work which he did, and the secure place which he built for himself in the affection and admiration of Britain's worthiest, as Ambassador of the United States. Tokens of gratitude will be offered by the civic and benevolent associations for which he was glad to spend himself. But no formal record can adequately convey the essential and varied fascination of Mr. Choate's personality. Like other precious things, it defies definition. It had to be felt to be known. Some one expressed to Pitt surprise at the great influence which Fox exerted. "You have never," was Pitt's reply, "been under the wand of the magician." And there was in Mr. Choate a quality little short of magical. It was not his wit, though that was a bubbling spring of delight; it was not the piquant audacity with which, in the interest of the cause he had at heart, he would let himself go at men in high station, or at institutions hoar with propriety; nor was it the grave and measured eloquence which he could on occasion command. All that the beholder and his friends could say was that in the totality of the impression he made there was something unique; and that by some divine alchemy the elements were so mixed in him that he could lay a spell upon all classes and conditions of men. No one ever thought of him as born to threaten and command, but all who knew him felt that nature had marked him out to charm and to convince.

Holding but a single public office, Mr. Choate yet became a national figure. And his eminence in the eyes of his countrymen was heightened in the very last years of his life. It was not simply that he had been a victorious counsel, a good soldier in the battle for many a political reform, a diplomat with honors thick upon him. It was not a case of the people, in his great age, looking to heroic services

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of his far back in the past. What they saw with kindled admiration was an old man still warming both hands at the fire of life; refusing to fall into a leisured and shrunken existence, but freely giving his name and time and silver speech to humane causes. Few know of his work for the blind in this city. It was but one instance of his readiness to lay upon his heart the lowliest burdens. His was a wonderfully gallant old age, hopeful, useful, radiant, unquenched.

Mr. Choate's death came as he might have wished it. Apart from the desire he may have cherished to live long enough to see his ardent hopes concerning the outcome of the world-war brought to fruition, he might well have been ready to depart after the events of last week, in which he bore so honored a part. The binding together of France and England with his own country in a great common aim, inwrought with the fabric of civilization, woke all his enthusiasm. For beyond the immediate struggles he saw the vision of a world at peace. Mr. Choate spoke up stoutly for the prosecution of the war to the end; but he was a lover of peace and of justice secured by peaceful means. At the second Hague Conference he was the champion of every method of abolishing war. In one speech at The Hague he had an impassioned burst about the alternatives to settlement of international disputes by judicial process—a burst which almost has a prophetic air, in view of what has since occurred:

> Let us resume all the savage practices of ancient times. Let us sack cities and put their inhabitants to the sword. Let us bombard undefended towns. Let us cast to the winds the rights of security that have been accorded to neutrals. Let us make the sufferings of soldiers and sailors in and after battle as frightful as possible. Let us wipe out all that the Red Cross has accomplished at Geneva, and the whole record of the First Peace Conference at The Hague, and all the negotiations and lofty aspirations that have resulted in the summoning of the present conference.

If Mr. Choate the past two years showed that a kind of *sæva indignatio* burned in his heart against Germany, it was mainly because his instincts as an international lawyer and a friend of peace had been so outraged by her reversion to barbarous warfare.

Zionism and the Russian Revolution

LORD ROBERT CECIL'S refusal in the House of Commons to say whether Great Britain had entered into any agreement with her allies with regard to the establishment of a Jewish state in Palestine, must have been dictated by considerations other than those of intra-Entente diplomacy. It would not help matters to supply Germany with another instance of Allied plans for the dismemberment of the territory of the Central Powers. It would have been premature to discuss the disposal of Palestine while Gen. Murray was only over the threshold of the Holy Land. Finally, it would have been premature to commit the Allies to the realization of the Zionist ideal, while events directly affecting the Zionist propaganda were working themselves out in Russia. The anomaly is presented that just at the moment when the progress of the Allied arms in Asia Minor makes the establishment of a Jewish state in Palestine a possibility, the one great factor which brought the Zionist movement into being and which has supplied its principal impetus, namely, the position of the Jews in eastern Europe and particularly in Russia, is in a fair way of being profoundly modified.

The unhappy economic and cultural condition of the Russian Jews which impelled the late Theodor Herzl to bring forward his solution of a separate home for his people could not have continued after the war even if Czarism had survived. Jewish poverty was primarily the result of segregation within the provinces of the Pale in Poland and Lithuania and restriction to the urban districts within that territory. The Pale no longer exists. It was destroyed by the invading Teutonic armies. The Jews of the western provinces were among the millions of refugees scattered throughout the empire in Asia as well as in Europe. The old régime was compelled to recognize an accomplished fact by removing the restrictions on Jewish domicile, and while such action was only for the duration of the war, it would have been an enormously difficult task to shepherd back the refugees to their old prison walls. The revolution has brought with it complete emancipation for the Jews. To what extent the new régime is prepared to go is indicated by the appointment of a Jewish lawyer of Petrograd to the post of Vice-Governor of the occupied territory in Galicia and Bukowina. Given full freedom of residence and of occupation, the Jews of Russia are sure to find in the vast spaces of Russia an outlet for their energies. The old economic misery can never return under a democratic régime.

The second factor that entered into Zionism was the cultural aspirations of the Jewish people. The principle of nationality which the Allies are now defending has been recognized by the makers of the Russian revolution. To Poland has been granted independence. To Finland has been conceded a degree of autonomy which is almost independence. To the other nationalities within the Russian state which cannot hope for political self-government in the fullest sense the way is open to that cultural autonomy for which they fought so eagerly long before the present war. If the revolution in Russia succeeds in maintaining itself, we may regard it as almost certain that along with the Ukrainians or Little Russians, the Letts, and the Armenians in the Caucasus, the Jews will receive the privilege of establishing and managing their own schools in those sections where they form a sufficiently large element in the population, their own tribunals and communal forms of government, and the recognition of their own popular tongue, the Yiddish, as the official language. In other words, one of the main aspirations of Zionism, the shaping of Jewish life in accordance with its own genius and traditions, may very well be realized under the broad federalism which seems destined to be the future organization of the Russian state.

But the change in Russia has by no means emptied Zionism of its meaning. There can be no absolute guarantee of the permanency of the new conditions, and so long as uncertainty exists, the Jewish people, after a millennial experience of suffering under all sorts of régimes, must continue to some extent to regard a country of its own as the ultimate solution. It is not certain, for example, what conditions will be in independent Poland, which still contains the bulk of the former Jewish subjects of the Czar. The indications are that Poland, where racial feeling has run high, will not escape the contagion of the Rus-

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sian revolution, and in common with all Europe will recognize the principle of national rights for which the Continent has been drenched with blood. Nevertheless there must be sufficient doubt of so happy an outcome to keep alive the vision of a people seeking in its historic home the fullest opportunity for self-realization.

Harvard and Financiers

ABOUT a year ago we called attention to the nominations for election as Overseers of Harvard, and pointed out the extraordinary preponderance in that list of financiers, railway men, corporation lawyers, and others of great wealth. The men chosen were J. P. Morgan; Francis Lee Higginson, jr., of Lee, Higginson & Co.; Eliot Wadsworth, then of Stone & Webster, now of the Red Cross; Howard Elliott, president of the New Haven Railroad, and William Thomas, one of the foremost corporation lawyers of San Francisco. Twenty nominations for this year's election have been made by the nominating committee of the Harvard Alumni Association. Of these candidates, two are with Lee, Higginson & Co., and one with White, Weld & Co. One is a soldier (Gen. Wood), one is the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, and one is the Police Commissioner of New York, Arthur Woods. A bishop has strayed in; likewise a clergyman-teacher, a Jewish lawyer (in response to a demand for Jewish representation), a retired surgeon, an architect, a valuable public servant in the person of George Rublee, a leading mining engineer, a carpet manufacturer, and a farmer-bank president. In addition, there are a wool merchant, a famous judge, another corporation lawyer, and an author. Thus it appears that the objections raised last year have had a certain effect in broadening the range of choice.

Taking the six members of the Harvard Corporation (the Fellows, who are life appointees), the thirty Overseers now serving, and the twenty candidates just named, together with the nine directors of the Harvard Alumni Association, the nine members of the Association's nominating committee, and the six men who have just been named as candidates for this year's election to the Association directorships, we have a body of eighty Harvard graduates, either connected with the governing boards and the Alumni Association or candidates for positions. Of these eighty alumni, forty live in or near Boston. Of the forty who live in Boston, eleven are physicians, clergymen, and literary men. Of the twenty-nine remaining, nine are, or were within two years, directors of the Old Colony Trust Company, the great financial institution representing the Lee-Higginson forces among the Boston financial interests. Five are directly connected with Lee, Higginson & Co., four are directors of the Merchants' National Bank, the Boston bank closest to the Old Colony Trust Company; six are directors of the Provident Institution for Savings, which is closely affiliated with the Old Colony Trust Company, if only because Gordon Abbott, chairman of the Old Colony Board, is one of its leading spirits. Six are directors of the Suffolk Savings Bank, of which Robert F. Herrick, one of the Overseers, is attorney, and four are directors of the closely connected Massachusetts Hospital Life Insurance Company.

In addition, six are attorneys for these banking concerns and insurance companies, being connected with the three firms, Fish, Richardson & Neave; Herrick, Smith, Donald & Farley, and Ropes, Gray, Boyden & Perkins. Of these twenty-nine men, therefore, twenty are directors or attorneys of Lee-Higginson banking corporations, of which Mr. Herrick is a guiding spirit. Besides these men, the First National Bank of Boston, friendly to the Old Colony Trust Company, has, or has had, two directors, while Kidder, Peabody & Co. has one—a director of the Alumni Association, upon which he ranks next to his brother, a school-headmaster. Thus, all but six of these twenty-nine Boston men are connected with three financial institutions. The non-Boston members of the board show a much greater variety of occupation and less close affiliation with the financial powers that be. J. P. Morgan & Co. has only two representatives on the board, while ex-Gov. Wilson, of Kentucky, Owen Wister, of Philadelphia, and President Hyde, of Bowdoin, represent a distinctly different type.

Now, we repeat what we said last year, that an institution like Harvard is bound to have all classes of alumni represented and, therefore, there must necessarily be many representatives of the financier class. The tendency to select successful men of affairs of large means is only natural when one considers the enormous sums that must be raised for running expenses and endowment. But the facts set forth above will again raise the question whether the representation of alumni is not so one-sided as to lead to flagrant misunderstanding and misinterpretation, to say nothing of giving the Board of Overseers entirely too much of a class or group point of view.

Pacifism in the Middle West

WHEN even such rock-ribbed Republican States in the Middle West as Kansas and Nebraska came so eagerly in the past election to the support of the President "who kept us out of war," there was in places a feeling that America was again to see the effects of sectional division. Certainly some Eastern people were quite frank in their condemnation of the purblind West; and at least one professor in a big Western university remarked enthusiastically to his classes that at last the West had asserted itself against the political ascendency of New York, and especially at a time when the "war mad" East seemed anxious to "plunge the country into the conflict." The pacific West and the bellicose East, these were the terms that were bandied back and forth, at a time when neither section quite understood the other's motives. And this misunderstanding is not entirely cleared away even to-day, though war was declared nearly a month ago, and the West has already furnished more than its proportion to the army and navy.

The fact that the war was far from the fields of Kansas and Iowa, and that the excitement of munitions making and war loans gave only feeble echoes on their peaceful prairies, is, of course, something. But if the West was not making shells and buying war bonds, it was at least speculating in grains and animals, and its daily papers served the undiluted news of Lusitania and Sussex horrors; and even the dullest of Western farmers could perceive that in some way or other the magic of the war had almost quadrupled the price of his wheat and cattle. We shall have to look farther than to the mere remoteness of the West

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from the scene of conflict for the real motives for its pacifism.

There is perhaps a little more ground for the assertion sometimes made, that the West is a new country and yet without traditions; and that a people require some tradition before they will willingly engage in a foreign war. Personally, however, I believe that what troubles the West is not an absence of traditions, but the presence of too many traditions.

There is, of course, the idealistic pacifist, the man who in his heart believes that war is never justifiable. Such unswerving idealism deserves and receives the silent tribute of every sane man, however deeply he may feel that some wars are unavoidable. And such idealistic pacifists are to be found the country over, East and West, but my own impression is that there are rather more of them in the East. The West lives too close to the ground to be troubled much with beautiful theories. The pacifist of Iowa, Kansas, and Nebraska is quite of another stripe.

It must be remembered that the Middle West was first settled by economic protest. It was the lure of land and a competency that brought to these prairies its immigrant trains. It was the rainbow of gold and adventure that beckoned the early Californian; but it was crops and corncribs and willing work that the early Nebraskan translated into the poetry of life. And then came the more than seven years of leanness, when mortgage spelled devil, and grasshoppers and drought and 50-cent wheat drove the sparse homesteader into an orgy of political nostrums. And like Ephraim he turned to his idols, Greenbackism, Populism, Freesilverism, anything that might promise the means to keep the devil at arm's length. The West supped with a short spoon in those years. The East looked on with amazement and consternation. But, though it reviled the Peffers and Sockless Jerry Simpsons, yet these notorious gentlemen were more than eccentricities, they were symbols and moving allegories.

And the farmer of Kansas and Nebraska, though to-day he sends his son and daughter to the university and rides in something more than a Ford, still remembers those years and trembles. He still talks "hard times" and panics, has never quite lost the trick of that troubled gaze at the sky, and has learned at a glance to interpret the waving lines of a weather chart. A hot, dry wind from the south sends him into an ague of apprehension. He still memorializes Congress for the purchase of the railways in the hope that transportation charges may be lessened; he believes in woman's suffrage; he is touched by the economic plea in prohibition; he grumbles at taxes, and would be ready for single tax were he not the owner of a farm; his State platforms still resound with pleas of economy; he abhors Trusts, and still feels that somehow Wall Street is at the bottom of all the evils of the world; in short, he is still true to type, a yet ardent disciple of economic protest.

What has all this to do with pacifism and the war? Everything. For we must remember first of all that it was not the West that shot straight and gambled deep that inherited our Western prairies. That adventurous race moved farther west, to be succeeded by the hard-working, plain-thinking band of immigrants who husbanded their resources against drought and grasshoppers. To them in their economic struggle against at first almost hopeless odds, the whole of life gradually began to appear as the play of purely economic forces. Though generous at heart, they have learned to tincture their generosity with a dash of honest book-keeping. They believe in education, but chiefly in one that pays on the right side of the ledger, so their grants are most generous to such issues as promise immediate practical rewards; and they talk with exceeding fervor of educational efficiency. Even their churches have a tendency to become clubs with the gospel of mutual aid; and their clubs and civic federations are commercial with the frank purpose of booming *local* enterprise. Their favorite word is *Boost*. It is no wonder, then, when the war broke out that they felt, no matter how keen might have been their sympathy for Belgium and France, that the issue of the conflict was of no vital concern to them. They accepted with fervent thanks the rise in the price of wheat, and left the issue to Providence and the warring nations.

It must be an economic war, they argued, for there can be no other issues worthy of the arbitrament of arms, and hence of no concern to them. "The war was none of ours," they assured themselves, "so let us stay out of it, and this can be done most surely if we stop shipments of arms and munitions"—an embargo on grain might have made some difference, for grain is foodstuff and a blessing. They even flirted, unconscious of the irony of their position, with the idea that there was only a difference in degree between Germany's submarine activity and the British blockade. When the Lusitania and the Sussex were sunk the same cry of horror arose from the prairies as came from New York and Boston, but with a reservation. "Keep Americans at home," the lesser papers of the West were almost unanimous in advocating. "While this madness is let loose Europe is no place for Americans." "While bricks are being hurled in a street brawl there should be no innocent bystanders." "This country is good enough for us; why wander abroad to venture the new terror of the high seas, and especially at a time when such reckless courage may involve our Government in this senseless war?"

For—and here is the nub of all economic pacifism—"no war is worth the price a nation must pay even for victory." It was not alone loss of life which they deplored, but destruction and waste of property—pure economic loss all. To them personal honor meant chiefly economic honesty and thrift. How else, then, should they interpret national honor save by national honesty and thrift? And certainly thrift seemed to demand, superficially at least, a calm restraint in the hour of peril, and a minding of one's own economic business. To plunge into a wasteful war, because a few lives had been lost of adventurous souls who had done much better had they remained at home, and because a few ships had been sunk and some property lost, to these economic pacifists seemed "like throwing good money after the bad," like burning a well-stored barn to punish the thieving rats. How much better and wiser it would be, they argued, to charge the present loss to overhead expense, and to go on about our business of buying and selling in the best markets, and "to wait for justification at the final return of sanity and sober counsels." The abstract idea of an injured and insulted state naturally had little meaning for them. They have no conception of the state.

Nor could they conceive how any sane and patriotic American could think otherwise, and they began to look for sinister motives; and at once to their minds came their old-time devil, Wall Street. It must be "high finance"

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and its little demons the munition-makers who were inciting the President to take up arms. It was the readiest explanation, and they took it up even in the halls of Congress.

Many in the East mistakenly argued that this apparent unwillingness of the West to vindicate the national honor must be due to pro-German proclivities. But the West in its rank and file has never been pro-German. Western pacifism has been a perfectly logical outcome of certain inherited economic traditions. The West is individualistic. It is no more pacifist than the East at heart. It simply counts the cost. And now it has simply needed to have its eyes raised from the problems of crops and markets, and to be told clearly one or two of the responsibilities of citizenship.

And never was Mr. Wilson more keen in his political acumen than when he wrote his war message to Congress. It at once began to set the West right in its thinking. He was elected by the West as the President "who kept us out of war." And now that we are in it the West is furnishing more than its proportion in the support of what at first was a most unpopular war. Even now the West is not quite sure what is meant by a war to secure democracy, but it pulls its belt a little tighter and is going to stand by the President. And in this fact there is some promise that an economic and individualistic provincialism which has long been a near-sectionalism may ultimately be forgotten.

PHILO M. BUCK, JR.

Correspondence

DISTILLERS' GRAINS

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In considering the prohibition question as it would affect the food supply of the country it might be well for some one to call attention to a fact too often overlooked or at least disregarded. In the distillation of alcohol and spirits about one-third of the weight of the grain used is returned in the form of a very valuable by-product called distillers' dried grains. This product contains all of the protein and almost all of the fat content of the whole grain, the only loss being in the starch or carbohydrates. For the feeding of dairy cattle distillers' grains are worth three times as much as corn, as they furnish three times as much protein, and protein is the essential nutrient for milk making. Thus while the bulk, the weight, is reduced to one-third, the value as a dairy feed is increased inversely. If milk, then, is one of the most important of human foods, it would seem that there could be no economic loss in taking at least one per cent. of the corn crop and converting it into distillers' grains, quite aside from any argument concerning the value of the distillate itself.

S. J. THOMPSON

Cincinnati, April 30

THE AMERICAN SERVICE AT ST. PAUL'S—AN IMPRESSION

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The service at St. Paul's Cathedral on April 20 to mark the entry of the United States "into the great war for freedom" was the most remarkable religious ceremony which was ever held there and the significance of which cannot be exaggerated. No one who was present and had a spark of historical imagination could fail to feel that it signified once for all the permanent union of the two great English-speaking nations of the world. Though they may have separate governments with Constitutions nominally different, they are one people in their love of freedom and of legality. The passion for legality has been the chief characteristic of the British race for centuries. Legality covers, in its true sense, individual freedom, for no man is free who is unable to vindicate his rights by law. It equally embraces respect for international engagements, without which modern civilization cannot exist. Great Britain and the United States have, under different technical details, the same basic legal principles, the strength of which has now united them in a common cause, to fructify into permanent friendly union. But the unusual American congregation in the Metropolitan Cathedral of England, the strains of the Star-Spangled Banner under the dome of St. Paul's, and the two national flags bore witness to the welding once for all of national and individual sympathies, which to take place required only some catastrophic and historical event.

There has always been an intellectual and literary, one may say even a religious, entente between groups of Americans and groups of Englishmen. The service at St. Paul's was an outward and visible sign of something far more than this, of the union of individuals who compose the two democracies. It was an historic gathering, since from to-day the two democracies may be said to understand each other, and we are sure that historians will hereafter tell that one permanent result of the great war, beneficial to the human race, since it portends the reign of law, was the union of the two peoples of which the service at St. Paul's Cathedral was the most solemn and significant sign.

E. S. ROSCOE

London, April 20

RELIEF WORK BY THE COLLEGES

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of March 22 there appeared a letter from Bloomington, Ind., signed "X." This note called attention to the stand taken by a certain university of the Middle West towards war-relief work, and asked for information from other colleges giving their attitude towards work of similar character.

Some of the students of the University of Wisconsin became interested in war-relief work, but particularly the American Ambulance Field Service in France, through a lecture by Lieut. Pechkoff, of the French Foreign Legion. They formed an executive committee to raise the necessary sixteen hundred dollars. This committee set to work to raise a part of it by direct subscription. Because of the size of the university, it was decided to be impossible to try and make solicitations for subscriptions among the student body as a whole. For that reason only the fraternities, sororities, and literary societies were "hit." Accompanied by a student member of the committee, a member of the faculty took luncheon or dinner at the various fraternity and sorority houses. After the meal was finished, the member of the faculty spoke and explained the work, its organization, and its objects. The student then would speak for a few minutes and make the direct "bid" for their financial help and would pass out the subscription blanks.

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Within two weeks practically every organization was reached in this way. Only one fraternity in the university refused to give aid, all the rest supported the idea surprisingly well. Twelve hundred dollars was pledged (and is now being rapidly collected), which means a great deal more than just twelve hundred dollars—it meant a sacrifice on the part of every student who made his contribution. One example will suffice: One of the committee happened to overhear one student as he made out his subscription; he turned to his neighbor at the table and said: "Well, that means six extra hours' work for me." That man was working his way through school, and his contribution of a few dollars meant work, and was not a contribution out of his "allowance." That is the striking point of the whole campaign. Practically every student gave enough to make his subscription a sacrifice to what he considered a really humanitarian cause.

Wisconsin has also sent sixteen men to France to join service there. The interest of the student body was aroused not merely because they happened to be pro-Ally, but also because they have felt that war-relief work was not only the privilege, but the duty of a neutral nation—and that, although their parents may have been furnishing them money for "education," to them education meant an appreciation of something outside their college campus—it meant an appreciation and a sympathetic feeling towards the world in general. They had the opportunity to practice their philosophy and they responded. P. F. La Follette

Madison, Wis., April 18

TRIBUTE TO AN AMERICAN-GERMAN

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Even in this hour honorable recognition should be paid to the life of fine scholarship of Caspar René Gregory, honorary ordinary professor of theology in the University of Leipzig, who fell in battle, April 9. This news has brought regret and sadness to many of us who were his pupils and to hundreds of other Americans who have sojourned at Leipzig. That he died fighting with the enemies of his native land should not give great offence, for that is what we are about to expect of thousands of our German-born citizens. Gregory had resided in Germany for more than forty years; had received high honors from his adopted country; and especially of late his friends had been able to notice in him a loss of interest in America and things American. That he died soon enough not to face an American army affords us a crumb of comfort and seems providential.

The German university world of a generation ago had no high regard for American scholarship, and for a long time after the young theologue from Pennsylvania and Princeton took his Ph.D. at Leipzig and started in there as a *privat docent* he had a hard fight; but he won out and became recognized as *primus inter pares* in his specialty, the textual criticism of the New Testament. He was the only American who ever attained to an actual professorship in a German university.

His friendliness to Americans at Leipzig in their first strange days was untiring and valuable; he found them lodgings and tutors; advised them about their courses; entertained them in his home in the Liebig Strasse and at Leipzig-Stötteritz; and introduced them to the big men of other universities when they migrated. Gregory, by the way, is an example of the impossibility of perfectly mastering an alien tongue; for the German that he spoke with exceptional fluency and correctness was somehow different from that of his native colleagues; and to the end the American, the Philadelphian, was evident underneath all his German veneer.

His scholarship lacked originality, and as a manuscript hunter he made no sensational discoveries, but the splendid work that he did as a sort of literary executor of Tischendorf and in compiling his "Prolegomena" and "Textkritik" insures him a permanent place among New Testament scholars. During his last visit to America, in 1912, one gained the impression that he was wearying of his technical studies and teaching, and that his interests were becoming absorbed in the social and political questions of the day. This may account in part for his strange eagerness to enter the army as a common soldier at the outbreak of the war, although at that time sixty-nine years old. His life was romantic, as scholars' lives go, and his end tragic. Some will think that he dishonored his native land in his death; he certainly honored her in his life, in the learned circles of Europe and in the field of New Testament study.

Mitchell Bronk

Troy, N. Y., April 16

BOOKS

"The Isle of Continent"

A Short History of Australia. By Ernest Scott. New York: Oxford University Press. $1.10.

The exploits of the "Anzacs" at Gallipoli drew on them the eyes of the world; and many must have felt a desire to know more of such men and the land that bred them than hasty journalism could furnish. To such inquiring minds a very satisfactory answer is provided by Prof. Ernest Scott, who occupies the chair of history in the University of Melbourne. His "Short History" is a model of its kind. Based on first-hand knowledge of the sources, written in a clear, masculine style with an agreeable literary flavor, well proportioned, judicial in tone, equipped with such aids to the understanding as maps, plans, chronology, bibliography, and index, this admirable work will take its place at once as a prime authority on Australia.

Tennyson's impressive name is accurate. Australia is an island and also a continent. It is as large as India and China put together. This oldest portion of the world is like a gigantic saucer. Around the rim are the habitable portions, even now only thinly settled, while the vast concave interior is a rainless desert. Of endless interest to the geologist, the naturalist, and the student of anthropology, Australia has perhaps even more interest for the historian, as an episode in colonization, illustrating the saying that Britain obtained her overseas dominions in a fit of absent-mindedness.

There is evidence that one Portuguese ship may have sailed along the northern coast of Terra Australis as early as 1542. Dutch explorers discovered the west coast in the seventeenth century, and, bringing back an ill report of the land, their employers, the East India Company, discouraged any further unprofitable efforts to add to the world's geographical knowledge, while trade flourished with the islands which they knew. To Burns this new British pos-

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session was still New Holland. In 1770 the celebrated navigator, Captain James Cook, discovered the east coast and took possession of it on behalf of Great Britain. One marvellous inlet was christened Botany Bay by Joseph Banks on account of the immensely large collection of new plants gathered thereabouts by Solander and himself. Such an innocent name was destined to have the most sinister associations.

Few even of the well informed realize that the present Commonwealth of Australia is really a by-product of the American Revolution; but it is a fact that the shot of the embattled farmers heard round the world echoed all along the blood-stained, torrid ridge of Krithia Baba in 1915. Throughout the eighteenth century Britain sent her criminals under sentence of transportation to the American colonies. So keen was the demand for their labor on the plantations that contractors relieved the Government of the trouble and expense of bringing them out, being amply reimbursed by selling these white slaves at £20 a head. When the Thirteen Colonies became an independent nation, this convict immigration naturally ceased; and Britain cast about to find another dump for her undesirable citizens. West Africa was tried with disastrous results. Then, just before the outbreak of the French Revolution, the attention of Pitt was called to the possibilities of the vast empty spaces at the Antipodes. British jails were congested with convicts; one estimate, possibly exaggerated, giving one hundred thousand. Overwhelmed with difficulties arising from the disastrous war by which North America was lost, Pitt authorized the scheme of transportation to New Holland, without the remotest idea that he was adding a vast colony to the Empire. That a convict settlement should ever grow into a great and prosperous people which should send an army corps to aid the mother country in a life-and-death struggle would have seemed to the shortsighted statesmen of the day a madman's dream.

The first fleet of transports with 717 convicts on board, cruisers, and supply ships, eleven vessels in all, left England in May, 1787, and reached Botany Bay the following January. The able, enthusiastic head of the expedition, Captain Arthur Phillip, R. N., perceived the defects of a site on its shores and founded the city of Sydney on the south bank of the more remarkable inlet to the north, Port Jackson. Like the steel and coal city of Nova Scotia, it was named out of compliment to the Secretary of State then in office, whom Goldsmith called Tommy Townshend in "Retaliation." All through the long wars with the French republic and Napoleon and far into the nineteenth century Britain continued to pour her criminals into Australia. Along with them came free settlers and between these two classes there was no little strife. Explorers pushed out into the unknown, and gradually discovered that the new land was not an Antarctic continent or a series of islands. The whole was claimed for Great Britain, as well as the adjacent Island of Tasmania. Separate territories were filled up and organized into separate governments, and, as they outgrew the original autocracy of military and naval officers, and acquired and developed powers of self-government, they protested more and more vehemently against the policy of dumping hordes of criminals upon them. Very reluctantly Britain ceased to do so, and turned the stream of convicts into Tasmania, making that lovely island a veritable hell on earth. Finally more enlightened methods of dealing with the criminal classes prevailed in Britain, and convictism with all its horrors came to an end. Professor Scott is of opinion that convictism was of some real value to the colony, inasmuch as it supplied the cheap labor without which the country could not have been developed. Australia is not yet freed of this original taint. The lawlessness of the bushrangers, the prevalence of the "larrikin," attest the power of evil to propagate itself. The marvel is that, with such an origin, the Commonwealth shows so slight traces of it after little more than a century of development.

Brief as that history is, it abounds in romantic incidents. The tale of such explorers as Burke and Wills, the epic of the gold rush, are among the most notable. As time went on, the centripetal forces drew the six separate states together into the Commonwealth of Australia, which was inaugurated on New Year's Day, 1901, the last year of the Boer war and of Queen Victoria's long reign. To the Boer war Australia had sent armed forces, as she had to the war in the Sudan.

Her hand was still on her sword-hilt, the spur was still on her heel,
She had not cast her harness of gray, war-dinted steel;
High on her red-splashed charger, beautiful, bold, and browned,
Bright-eyed out of the battle, the young Queen rode to be crowned.

The framers of the new Australian Constitution drew several of its features from the Constitution of the United States and others from the British North America Act. Like all the British dominions overseas, the Commonwealth will be affected by the events of the war and its status within the Empire modified. None can foresee its future; but that it will be greater than its past none can doubt.

Already it has manifested a striking individuality. In the tropics the northern stirp has shown extraordinary physical development, indicated by the nickname "Cornstalks." Overwhelmingly English in origin, the Australians' national game is cricket, which the climate allows to be played all the year round. That same climate has made them Southerners and horsemen like the Texans. Racing is a national passion and brings together tens of thousands for such events as the Melbourne Cup. Labor has perhaps more power than in any other country and promotes radical legislation. Australia has led the way in compulsory military service; and its nucleus navy has done good work, as the exploits of the Sydney attest. Isolation has induced a remarkable degree of self-confidence in the Australians who have not been overshadowed by a huge and prosperous neighbor like the Canadians. That self-confidence, not to say self-complacency, finds naïve expression as in the remark of the young "Cornstalk" confronted with Westminster Abbey: "But you ought to see the Presbyterian Church at Ballarat."

Cuba

The Early History of Cuba. By Irene A. Wright. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2 net.

"THIS book," according to its opening sentence, "is the history of Cuba from its discovery by Columbus in 1492, through the year 1586," when Drake demonstrated England's sea power in the West Indian waters. Strictly speaking, however, its chief purpose seems to be the revelation, first of the riches of the Archivo de Indias at Seville,

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and, secondly, of the diligence required in sorting out the wealth of Cuban materials in that repository.

The work is divided into four "books": the period of occupation, 1492-1524; the "era of stagnation," 1524-1550; the influence of the French, 1550-1567, and the menace of the English, 1567-1586. At the beginning of each of these "books" the reader is confronted with one or more pages of manuscript numbers, which are quite meaningless and purposeless to him unless he happens to be a student investigator seated in the midst of the dusty *legajos* of the Sevillan archives. The ordinary reader would have found these numbers quite as convincing and less formidable had they been tucked away in footnotes or appendices. The more serious investigator would also be far more grateful to the author had they been attached, with excerpts, as confirmatory references to specific statements in the text.

The main facts of the narrative history of the period are recounted in normal sequence with numerous bits of new information. We learn of Columbus's first visit in 1492, though one looks in vain for allusions to the investigations of other scholars on this point—for example, Vignaud or Harrisse—particularly with reference to the preliminary cruise along the shore before the first landing. Although the author mentions the Spanish "intention to forestall the jealous King of Portugal" by pushing on the work of exploration, no mention whatever occurs of the Bulls of Demarcation of 1493, or of the various treaties which gave Spain a free hand in Española, Cuba, and the other islands of the West Indies. Reference is made to the sworn declaration of Columbus in June, 1494, that Cuba was part of the mainland. The real explanation of this procedure, however—the establishment of a Spanish claim to the continental "Indies" and the consequent assurance of the discoverer's future fortunes—is not given. The reader wonders why the first circumnavigation of the island by Ocampo is dismissed with a reference to the fact that Las Casas mentions it. This inadequacy and the omission of any reference to other plans for such a voyage of circumnavigation (*e. g.*, those of Ojeda) at once raise grave doubts as to the advisability of restricting such an investigation to a single repository of sources, however valuable that collection may be. The use of the early charts in the Hydrographic Office in Madrid or the materials in Navarrete's "Biblioteca Marítima," even though they are in print, might have answered doubtful and significant questions.

The administration of the first Governor, Diego Velazquez, is briefly outlined with special reference to the preparations for the voyages of Grijalva, Narvaez, Cortes, and the other conquistadors, who made Cuba their base of supplies. The account of the reduction of the native Cubeños to servitude is sketched in a few pages, with the assurance that the Spaniards were occupied with this task "for a generation and not merely for a few years, as is usually believed." The authority for this declaration is once more "the documents in the Sevillan archives," but the exact identity and nature of these highly important materials are hidden in the cryptic numbers of thirty old *legajos* or bundles of manuscripts.

The era of civil wars and discord during the middle decades of the century is interestingly described, with helpful allusions to the continuity of that inherent Spanish trait of *regionalismo* or separatism. A chapter is devoted to the social, agricultural, and commercial development of the colony, and in this connection mention should be made of the author's very useful contribution of documents on the beginnings of the cane-sugar industry (1519-1538), published in the *American Historical Review*, July, 1916.

The data which she presents (pp. 203 ff.) upon the use of the mineral resources of Cuba in the military preparations of Charles V and his son, Philip II, are quite new and of considerable interest. With reference to the early economic history of Cuba, it may, however, be suggested that the part played by the Basques and other north coast Spaniards, as mariners, miners, and foresters, was far too important to warrant the supposition that Seville and Andalusia exclusively dominated the industrial beginnings of the colony. Here again the Sevillan archives might well have been supplemented with the recent contributions of Basque and Viscayan writers like Ispizua, or with documents from the Archive of the Consulado at Bilbao.

The best chapters in the book are those dealing with Menendez de Avilés, the first truly great figure to appear in Cuban history. The reader may forgive the attempted explanation (pp. 272-3) of Menendez's brutal massacre in 1565 of the Florida colony of French Huguenots (who, by the way, are not mentioned as such, but appear as "Calvinists" and "heretics"). The account of the contributions and activities of that vigorous Governor clearly justifies the distinction given him as the dominant figure of this period.

There are various minor inaccuracies in the book. Cabeza de Vaca did not reach the end of his famous journey until 1536 (p. 164). The Welser enterprise in Venezuela was German, not Flemish (p. 205). The original edition of the "Documentos Ineditos" may be "indexless" (p. xv), but good inventories and indices of its contents have appeared since its publication. One wonders, furthermore, whether the habit of indulgence in gesture is "the one surviving aboriginal trait" inherited by the present day Cuban, not from the Spaniards, but from the pre-Columbian Indians (p. 200). In such a book as this a map is not only desirable, but essential; and the same may be said of a list of the writers who have already worked in the field of early Cuban history. Specific references to and comments upon such pioneer writers as Herrera, Oviedo, Pezuela, and even Helps, would materially assist the reader.

Paths and Goals

A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man. By James Joyce. New York: B. W. Huebsch.

Changing Winds. By St. John G. Ervine. New York: The Macmillan Co.

The Ford. By Mary Austin. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

THE brilliant and nasty variety of pseudo-realism is excellently exemplified in "A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man." Very plainly the author has set out with the intention of putting another nail in the coffin of convention—which to his mind is much the same thing as decency. What is reticence but hypocrisy? How are we to be honest with each other if we do not use the words that are written upon the fair lexicon of blank wall and private place? How are we to see life whole if we hesitate to chronicle the thoughts and experiences which those words connote for fumbling youth? This young Irish writer is determined to

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have it out. . . . His conscious determination is the usual sign of limit and defect. It is so hard to keep one's balance. In the act of squaring off to hit insincerity in the eye, somehow writers of talent are always forgetting what writers of supreme genius never have to remember—that one does not interpret truth by swatting at any half-truth—or by magnifying any fact. Mr. James Joyce is by no means a trifler, but it would be the best thing in the world for him if he could forget that he is a rebel. There is, in truth, an old and sound idea at the bottom of this story: it is the chronicle of youth setting out to discover the truth about life, and to interpret it. Stephen Dedalus, up to our last glimpse of him, is not a prodigy of achievement, but merely a young man destined to be an artist, an interpreter, when he shall have filled himself with living. "Welcome, O life!" he cries, as he prepares to turn his back upon Dublin and Ireland, and to fare forth upon his wider search: "Welcome, O life! I go to encounter for the millionth time the reality of experience, and to forge in the smithy of my soul the uncreated conscience of my race." He does not think overmuch of the race as it is, human or Irish, but is not without hopes of what it may become under his guidance!

Stephen is son of a down-at-heels Irish gentleman, politician, and wit, unfruitfully fond of Ireland and framed to be one of the numberless well-meaning thorns in her side. He is a hater of the priesthood and a worshipper of dead Parnell: for the rest a blade and a braggart. The son is of more complex making, a doubter of all known gods. We are only to accompany him through the pitiable fleshly torments and spiritual flounderings of adolescence to the threshold of possible manhood. Out of it all is spun his fine dream of making himself fit to be a prophet in his forlorn country. From sexual filth he escapes, but not quite to love. There is a decent maiden, but he cannot think cleanly of her.

From this vision of youth, of humanity, groping vainly for escape from its vileness, one turns with vast relief to the clean and air-swept region in which Mr. Ervine's imagination moves. Here is another story of Irish youth, by a young Irish novelist; here, moreover, is another study of the artist as a young man. Mr. Ervine is not squeamish; the basic situation in "Mrs. Martin's Man" was such as few story-tellers would care or dare to interpret. Yet that was a book of health. It ignored certain "Victorian" restrictions, showed how unnecessary they were, how safely and even profitably a firm hand might ignore them. But never for an instant did it appear to be consciously defying them. It was merely that his work, to use a phrase of his own, had "the nakedness of cleanly, natural things." The quality is strongly to be felt in "Changing Winds," though this is a different sort of story. Feminine character was the study in "Mrs. Martin's Man" and "Alice and a Family." This is the tale of a young Irishman voyaging after himself, beset by cross currents and changing winds, and yet in the end coming fairly to port. Henry Quinn's father is a man of Ulster, of strong but eccentric character, who has failed at the law because, though a Protestant and a stout Unionist, he is a hater of England. He is bent upon rearing a son who shall be above all else an Irishman. The deepest affection and confidence exists between the two, and yet they are at odds in temperament. Henry has inherited nothing of his father's rugged and forthright nature, is a dreamer rather than a fighter. He has, indeed, a strain of physical cowardice, which is mystery and torture to them both. He is meant for Trinity, Dublin, but one of his father's impatient quirks sends him to a good English school. There he makes a fourth with three English chums, and presently falls boyishly in love with the sister of one of them. He returns to Ireland by no means as Irish as he left it. His four years at Trinity are unfruitful and ungrateful and are passed over in this narrative. The three friends of his bosom are at Cambridge, that stout English stronghold, while Trinity, Dublin, is a place of half moods and methods: "a hermaphrodite of a college," complains Henry, "neither one thing nor the other, English nor Irish. . . . The Provost looks down the side of his nose at you if he thinks you take an interest in Ireland!" The gospel of the new Irishry, with its cult of the old tongue and the old ways, Henry has tasted at the hands of the zealot, John Marsh. He has seen its limitations and absurdities; and the hatred of England upon which it seems to be based has found no echo in him. He turns to England, to his friends, and his apprenticeship as a novelist. He succeeds at writing; and, outliving the earlier experiences of sex (always ideal to his fancy) is betrothed to Mary Graham, the little sister of his friend. Then breaks the war: Henry's three friends go, one by one, to the front, and are there slain. Henry himself wishes to go, but is really possessed by the idea of his old cowardice. He confesses his poltroonery to Mary: she will still marry him, with contempt coloring her love. One excuse after another is furnished by fate, and he is still merely planning to enlist when chance sets him in the thick of the Easter Rebellion of the Sinn Feiners; and when it is all over he realizes that he has had no fear at all. So he goes forward quite happily to his fate, though he is secretly convinced that it means death. This is the outline of the story; but the gist of it cannot be conveyed in a few words. It is an interpretation full of insight, and rich in human sympathy.

"The Ford" is a story of equally sincere feeling and workmanship. The serene hardihood of its title is justified by the dignity of the thing itself. The ford in question is that ford Jabbok where Jacob wrestled with the angel, and saw God face to face. It typifies the critical experience in the life of our young Californian, Kenneth Brent. Brent is neither a weakling nor of the patently heroic, all-conquering type, but an American of average stock and average possibilities. His father, a born farmer, has almost wrested success from his sheep ranch, but has been beaten by drought and other circumstances, notably his shallow and town-loving wife. There has been also the indirect pressure of "the Old Man," the financier Rickart, whose hands are steadily closing upon the lands above Tierra Longa, where "Las Palomitas," the Brents' ranch, lies. His influence also controls the new oil interests at Summerfield and brings about the loss of the few thousands the elder Brent has retrieved from the loss of the ranch. Kenneth has his way to make and is persuaded by his sister Anne, the clear-minded and efficient member of the family, to learn business under Rickart. Her purpose and Kenneth's is to be "in" on things, to win a share in the big rewards of enterprise in the still new country. For years the young man serves the despot, learns the inner rules of the financial game. But his heart is not in it, he lacks initiative and the knack of seizing opportunity. Finally his chance comes to be "in" a big deal which his superior is planning at the expense of Brent's own

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country. The valley of Tierra Longa is to be turned into a reservoir for San Francisco. So Kenneth meets the angel at the ford and wrestles with him and wins his battle at heavy cost and to his soul's saving. Quite contentedly, with the girl he has been so slow in recognizing as his mate, he goes back to the land and to that life of productive effort which the hardy Anne has made possible for his father and himself by recovering Las Palomitas. To Anne herself, with her different way of approaching life, her brother has "slumped." There is an interesting contrast drawn between her point of view and Rickart's and that of her father and brother. To the pair of financiers, lesser and greater, the land with its treasures, soil, water, oil, and mineral wealth, is an object to be acquired and developed sufficiently to be turned over at a profit. To the Brents, it is a possession to be held in trust, and to be made productive for the common good. Rickart himself, however, is by no means the cold-blooded vampire he is accused of being: his function seems to him great and genuine, and in fulfilling it he has the necessary ability to ignore all other considerations which might obstruct or hamper his purpose. If people are ruined by getting in the way of his projects, that is their lookout. He is fond of the Brents, but not the less ready to tread them flat in his path. There are other very clearly drawn characters here, notably Virginia, who typifies the emotional and irresponsible element in the modern feminine revolt, as Anne typifies its cool and self-assertive element. We sigh with relief when Kenneth discovers the simple and womanly Ellis by his side. In this book is a substance worthy of Mrs. Austin's rich and finished style.

Experiments in Prose Rhythm

The Rhythm of Prose: An Experimental Investigation of Individual Difference in the Sense of Rhythm. By William Morrison Patterson. New York: Columbia University Press. $1.50 net.

FOR several months it has been known that Dr. Patterson was conducting experiments at the Columbia laboratories in the nature of the rhythm of prose. Students of rhetoric and prose style have expected his results with interest; and it has even been intimated that his experiments would provide a test for the theory of free verse. They have now been published, and their value may be determined by any one who will take the trouble to master the technical terms of the discussion.

The method employed was to record in five series of drum-beats the series of syllables or sounds (one beat to every syllable or sound) in (1) a sentence from Walter Pater, (2) a passage of six bars from Chopin, (3) a sentence from Henry James, (4) a haphazard arrangement of musical notes, (5) a haphazard arrangement of seventeen words. Twelve persons, chosen as probably having different degrees of rhythmic sensibility, were then asked to pass judgment, after suitable preparations, on the rhythmical or non-rhythmical character of these five series of drum-beats. Of course this is an extremely simplified statement of the actual experiments, and indeed of only one of several kinds of experiments—that one, however, being the most important so far as Dr. Patterson's conclusions are concerned. It will occur to every one that there is a curious omission here. Why has no passage of verse been used in this or any of the tests for the purpose of comparison with the results in prose? But this point may be passed over for the present.

The first result of the experiments is to show the nature of "individual difference in the complex of actual rhythmic experience." There are hearers, Dr. Patterson proves, who are capable of detecting and enjoying syncopation as well as regular stress, of "substituting one long time-interval for several equivalent short ones, or vice versa," of shifting from five-four time in one bar of music to four-four in the next, three-four in the next, with pleasure and without loss of the sense of rhythm, and of performing other feats of rhythmic subtlety; and again there are other hearers who are not so constituted. So far we can follow. That there are such individual differences is matter of common knowledge; and Dr. Patterson's labors have done something to advance the scientific record of them. But this is a small part of the author's claim. From this principle of individual difference the long-sought explanation of prose-rhythm is to be deduced; upon it are to be erected systems of prose-rhythm (p. x). For, he continues, the detection of prose-rhythm depends on one's ability to be aware of regular *subjective* time-pulses (suggested to each man's inner ear, perhaps, by the usual time-rate of his walking-step), and then on one's ability to hear a series of such pulses as having a certain relation, through syncopation, with another series of "irregular, virtually haphazard" sounds, namely, the sounds of a sentence of prose. "Prose-rhythm must always be classed as subjective organization of irregular, virtually haphazard, arrangements of sound" (p. xxii).

It follows, of course, since all people are not capable of such a feat, that one person will be able to hear the rhythm of prose and another will not. It follows also that the aggressive timer who can thus organize subjectively the rhythm of a prose sentence can in the same way organize *any* series of irregular sounds. In other words, Dr. Patterson has virtually said that there is no such thing as an objective rhythm in prose, such as we hear in poetry, that is, a rhythm audible to the outer ear, and audible to two or more persons as the same rhythm.

Now this principle is probably correct for a great deal of prose-speech, including, for instance, all merely useful, unliterary prose. But then the proper thing to say about such prose is simply that it is unrhythmical, except as it (or any series of sounds) may be made by subjective process to *seem* rhythmical. That is, the only way in which prose becomes really rhythmical is by having imposed upon it a conventional objective rhythm for the purpose of making it pleasurable to the ears. Does there exist anywhere a prose made rhythmical in this way—that is, with rhythms determined by conventions and traditions, just as the rhythms of verse have been determined and imposed by the rules of dance and song? If so, this is the prose to study, and this in its simple forms, not in its subtle ones. If not, then prose-rhythm, as such, is not to be studied at all. In brief, "convention" is the magic word which will open this mystery, if it can be opened, and the processes of study to be used are the historical, not the psychological, ones.

Is there, then, in fact such a prose as we have described? Yes! One example of it is the oratorical prose of the Greeks and Romans, the rhythmic rules of which have been described in detail by Cicero. Moreover, as we now know, the rhythmical tradition thus established in antiquity passed over into mediæval Latin prose of many different kinds, the liturgical, the oratorical, and the epistolary, and even, as

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we are just now learning, into the Collects of the English Prayer-Book. But that is not all. It seems probable—though it must be said that the subject is still in its infancy—that this same oratorical tradition can be followed down into classical English prose by many channels, some leading directly from the ancient writers, some by way of mediæval Latin, and that the rhythmical character of some of our best prosaists may be finally described by reference to the practice of Isocrates, Cicero, Cyprian, Gregory the Great, and Leo. At least it would appear that the study of rhythm is most likely to become profitable if it is pursued at first in those English authors who were most conscious of the classical and mediæval tradition, such authors as Gibbon, Johnson, Landor, and Newman. We feel ourselves within reach of definite results when we read these authors with the rhythms of Cicero in mind. The rhythmical intention of Landor is unquestionable, for instance, in a sentence of "Pericles and Aspasia" which ends: "with a paternal prolixity of studied and stored-up meditations"; and in the sentences which terminate Gibbon's twenty-eighth chapter one may hear at the ends of all the clauses the same rhythms that delighted the ears of Cicero's audiences.

One thing is clear. There are two subjects which must be kept wholly distinct. One is the subject of rhythmic experience in general. This is a scientific and psychological subject, and the distinction between prose and verse has no significance with reference to it. The other is the study of the actual rhythms that appear in literature. This study is descriptive and historical, and takes account of the different conventions of prose and poetry. The value of Dr. Patterson's researches is all in the former field; but he has partly invalidated his conclusions even there by attempting to apply them in the latter.

Notes

PUBLICATION this month of "Italy at War, and the Allies in the West," by E. Alexander Powell, is announced by Charles Scribner's Sons.

Announcements of forthcoming publications by G. P. Putnam's Sons are as follows: "The Hundredth Chance," by Ethel M. Dell; "1,000 Hints on Flowers and Birds," by Mae Savell Croy; "Algernon Charles Swinburne," Personal Recollections by his cousin, Mrs. Disney Leith; "The Fragrant Note Book—Romance and Legend of the Flower Garden and the Bye Way," by C. Arthur Coan; "The Adventure of Death," by Robert W. Mackenna. As representatives of the Cambridge University Press the Putnams announce the following: "Russian Realities and Problems," by Paul Milyukov and others; "Growth and Form," by D'Arcy Wentworth Thompson; "Experimental Building Science," by J. Leask Manson, and "Domestic Economy," by Marion Greenwood Bidder.

THE *forthcoming publication of "Ladies Must Live,"* by Alice Duer Miller, and "Doing My Bit for Ireland," by Margaret Skinnider, is announced by the Century Company.

The Macmillan Company has announced the publication of "His Family," by Ernest Poole.

"What Is Man? and Other Essays," by Mark Twain, and "Sandman Tales," by Abbie Phillips Walker, are published this week by Harper & Brothers.

Ginn & Company announce for publication in the near future an edition of Poe's poems by Killis Campbell.

The following are announced as forthcoming by E. P. Dutton & Company: "Bygone Liverpool," by Ramsay Muir and Henry S. and Harold E. Young; "Seen and Heard Before and After 1914," by Mary and Jane Findlater; "In the Claws of the German Eagle," by Albert Rhys William, and "The Village Shield: A Story of Mexico," by Ruth Gaines and Georgia Willis Read.

The publication of the following volumes is announced this week by George H. Doran Company: "Cecilia of the Pink Roses," by Katharine Haviland Taylor; "The Land of Deepening Shadow: Germany at War," by D. Thomas Curtin; "The Battle of the Somme," by John Buchan; "The German Terror in Belgium," by Arnold J. Toynbee; "The German Road to the East," by P. Evans Lewin; "One Young Man," edited by J. E. Hodder Williams; "The Survival of Jesus," by John Huntley Skrine; "The Book of Joy," by John T. Faris.

AN interesting addition to the volumes of essays in this country is E. S. Nadal's "A Virginian Village and Other Papers" (Macmillan; $1.75). Born so long ago as 1843, Mr. Nadal has seen a wide variety of life in the United States and in England, and has mingled with a multitude of types—ambassadors, poets, and critics, eastern turfmen and cowboys of the Texas plains. All of them he has viewed with enlightened and humorous common-sense, and a remarkably large number of them he has remembered with surprising definiteness and clearness. The anecdotes and recollections of Lowell, with whom he was associated at the American Legation at the Court of Saint James's, bring that worthy before us in a very intimate way. Even more prominent in his mind is Lincoln, whom he did not know personally, but of whom he relates with relish many a stray detail garnered from the innumerable conversations of his long life. In these recitals he makes no effort at profundity or searching analysis. He does something much more engaging. He chats with us in a frankly personal way without disguise of prepossession and crotchet. His youthful enthusiasm for Matthew Arnold lingers unabated in these pages. An early antipathy to Southern literature discovers for him a taint of slavery in Richard Henry Wilde's sonnet "To the Mocking Bird," fanciful enough in expression, but after all written with an eye on the object. Naturally, Mr. Nadal's qualities of humor and close, quick observation are most charmingly displayed in the opening paper, "Autobiographical Notes." Seldom indeed does one pick up a more seductive volume for an idle hour.

PROF. E. L. SCHAUB'S authorized translation of Wundt's "Elemente der Völkerpsychologie" ("Elements of Folk Psychology"; Macmillan; $3.75) is a careful and successful piece of work. To one who is familiar in any degree with the difficulties connected with the translation of such a production, the accomplishment seems very considerable. The original medium seldom shows through. It seems almost ungracious to express a doubt that such effort and skill have been well expended. This is no time to pass *de novo* upon the original work, the date of which was 1912; and least of all to thresh over again the pros and cons as to the general value of Völkerpsychologie, as developed by Wundt through all these years. But it is

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doubtful whether any considerable group of persons will profit by this translation who would not have been able to read the original. Indeed, it is to be hoped that this is the case; for it would be unfortunate for the understanding of social evolution and organization if these arguments and views of Wundt should become widely diffused. His easy and ready explanations of complicated matters; his guesses and assumptions which he later comes, with calm self-complacency, to accept as demonstrations; his apparent innocence of feeling for induction or of a sense of the existence of obdurate and refractory instances—these things completely undermine confidence in his results. His assumptions may be true, but then again they may not be; they are put forth, however, with an air of erudition and authority that are calculated to impose upon the uncritical. When an author keeps saying that "obviously" this and that is the case, the seasoned student becomes suspicious; but the reader who has not been rendered wary of the plausible may readily feel that if he is not convinced by what so touted an authority sees to be almost self-evident, the trouble must be with himself. The margins of the reviewer's copy of this book are splashed with queries as to the trustworthiness of assertions confidently set down; and these exceptions do not concern expressions of opinion solely, but not seldom statements of fact.

GROUP marriage is "obviously nothing but a combination of polyandry and polygamy"; polygamy is "a form of marriage that is obviously derived from monogamy." Thus readily are removed what seem to many students to be great difficulties. "The more extensive social groups generally result from the fact that, during the rainy season, families withdraw into caves among the hills." Presumably without caves and rainy seasons there could be no extensive social groups. But why multiply instances? It is at any rate a relief that a lot of this solemn and bathetic Teutonic nonsense, now that the glamour is off it, stands a chance of being recognized for what it is. Towards such a consummation it is a considerable contribution to get the pretentious mass done into English.

PREPARATIONS for national defence, in which universities and colleges are now participating, give increased interest to statistics gathered at several institutions of learning relating to the military services of their students in the Civil War. According to the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* of June, 1913, Harvard furnished the armed forces of the North 4 major-generals, 25 brigadier-generals, 70 colonels, 52 lieutenant-colonels, and 44 majors. To the Confederate forces she sent 7 major-generals, 10 brigadier-generals, 19 colonels, 18 lieutenant-colonels, and 21 majors. To the navy Harvard contributed 1 rear-admiral and 1 commander. Dr. Ewing Jordan has now published a partial list of the University of Pennsylvania men who served in the same war. He has compiled the record of 2,500 students thus far, and is confident that this number will be increased to 4,000. To the Union forces the University of Pennsylvania contributed 6 major-generals. Of these McClellan commanded the Army of the Potomac; Parke, commander of the Ninth Corps, also commanded that army for one brief critical hour, and Meigs, as quartermaster-general of the United States army during the entire war, equipped and supplied all the Northern armies. Fifteen brigadier-generals, 2 adjutant-generals, 19 colonels, 15 lieutenant-colonels, 21 majors, 85 captains, 38 lieutenants, 835 surgeons, and 16 chaplains were sons of Pennsylvania. Among the surgeons were the surgeon-general of the United States army and 65 surgeons-in-chief and division and brigade surgeons. To the Confederate forces the University of Pennsylvania contributed 1 lieutenant-general, John C. Pemberton, who surrendered Vicksburg to General Grant; 2 brigadier-generals, 11 colonels, 11 lieutenant-colonels, 2 adjutants, 12 majors, 28 captains, 16 lieutenants, and 535 surgeons, including 1 fleet surgeon and 35 surgeons-in-chief and brigade surgeons. Upon Dr. Jordan's statistics the claim is made for the University of Pennsylvania that from her students were drawn more army, department, and corps commanders and other officers holding positions of high responsibility and more surgeons than came from any other university. The period was one, too, in which the college department had failed to hold the earlier reputation acquired in the previous century and before the rapid growth which began to set in shortly after the Civil War, the student body of this department of the University being therefore comparatively small.

THERE is somehow an air of belatedness about Mr. Vachel Lindsay. Roving and dishevelled bards who make a point of living on the country they honor with their footsteps have, in view of the current distaste for long hair and queerness, a pathetic and Rip Van Winklish air. Simplicity and inconspicuousness are the thing: even the most unruly free-versifiers are now, we believe, of perfectly domesticated mien and conduct. The title-page of the present little volume has the slightly callow brilliancy we used to admire in the nineties: "A Handy Guide for Beggars, Especially Those of the Poetic Fraternity: Being sundry explorations, made while afoot and penniless in Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. These adventures convey and illustrate the rules of beggary for poets and some others. By Vachel Lindsay. The Macmillan Company, publishers. MCMXVI." The short of it appears to be that Mr. Lindsay has more than once left his change at home and taken the chances of the road, and that he has made very good copy out of his experiences. His prose style is self-consciously clever, as back-to-nature writing inclines to be, but he has a natural vein of eloquence, too. One or two of the episodes of his journeying, which he records in his fragmentary way, linger in the mind as veritable idylls—true little pictures of human life as embodied in a single time and place. From the book as a whole we could wish more of that simplicity which goes with humor. But there must have been some quality in the wanderer which hindered men from braining him when, according to his custom, he proffered a volume of his own poems in payment for a railway ticket or a bed.

NEW ENGLAND'S significance in the early processes of nation-building has had relatively so little attention at the hands of American historians that a volume on any important phase of this subject need proffer no apology for its appearance. William A. Robinson's "Jeffersonian Democracy in New England" (Yale University Press; $2 net) is precisely what its title indicates it to be, an essay on the opposition to Federalism in the politics of the New England States and upon the national significance of New

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England Republicanism in the early decades of the Union. Jefferson's party labored under tremendous handicaps in this northeastern area; it had few local leaders of note, for nearly all the wealth and culture of New England had been gathered into the ranks of its opponents. Accordingly, its achievements have bulked none too large upon the printed page. Yet the Republicans of New England put up a valiant fight in those days, and in the period from 1800 to 1815 they really became, in the author's words, "the party of union and nationalism." Professor Robinson's book is careful in its canvass of facts and moderate in its statements of opinion. Some admirable maps and tables accompany the volume.

"THE Jumel Mansion," by William Henry Shelton (Houghton Mifflin; $10), is a large and showy book on a trivial subject. The house itself, which is not distinguished historically nor architecturally, serves as a pretext for the introduction of a large amount of other information, some of which may as well have been left in the records of the prolonged inheritance suits from which it has evidently been drawn. The house is a wholesome Georgian structure, built about 1766 by Roger Morris, who married that Mary Phillipse, of Yonkers, with whom tradition has connected George Washington. The façade has a gabled portico that is too broad, and columns that are too thin, for the best effect. There is a balcony that seems too long, but beneath it is a very charming doorway, which goes far towards giving an air of beauty to the front. On the rear is a handsome octagon drawing-room. The owner was a Tory during the Revolution, and his house was confiscated by the Government. It passed through several hands until it finally came into the possession of Stephen Jumel, a merchant of French origin who had been hoodwinked into marrying a beautiful but low-born mistress. Finding himself and wife ostracized by good society, he settled at this place, ten miles from the town, and spent his days in retirement. His clever wife eventually robbed him of his property, and after his death got herself a great husband in Aaron Burr, then sadly in need of a mended fortune. A divorce followed, each accusing the other of unfaithfulness. In her old age Madame Jumel told many extravagant stories about her social successes in New York and Paris, and she became a heroine in a mass of unpleasant adventure. Mr. Shelton, who writes about this woman of vanity as seriously as if she were a field-marshal, dispels these clouds of fancy and presents us a woman of very sordid character. For a short time the house was Washington's headquarters when he withdrew from New York in 1776. The military events that occurred near it are described with much detail and with apparent faithfulness. The author argues for a new interpretation of the Nathan Hale incident. He thinks that Hale went into New York to help burn the place over the heads of the British, who had just occupied it, and that he was taken and executed as a spy on account of his participation in that plot. The argument, however, is so largely inferential that we cannot accept it as convincing. In fact, all the official statements preserved at the time on the American side charged the British with responsibility for the fire, and those who are now endeavoring to contend that it was an American deed are forced to rely entirely on British evidence, to the discredit of the original statements on their own side.

AN interesting attempt is made to discredit Peter Force as an editor; he is charged with omitting a certain passage from a letter describing the fire in New York, published in the *St. James Chronicle,* November 8, 1776. We are not shown the letter in the "American Archives," as it should have been presented to us by Force, but a certain extract, alleged to have been omitted, is given, and it is followed by the statement in Force from which it is said to have been omitted, without intimation of the place at which it was cut out (p. 46). If one means to overthrow a man of Force's standing, it is necessary to do it in approved critical style. Three things can be said in his behalf: (a) the alleged omitted sentences are no more damaging to the American side than many statements that are freely admitted in other places in the "Archives," and thus we may ask what motive could he have had in leaving it out; (b) Shelton's copy of the extract which he professes to take from Force is textually unlike the statement in Force; and (c) we are forced to conclude that he is either a bad copyist or that he took his copy, not from Force, but from some other form of the letter; and if the letter in question existed in two forms, it is possible that Force copied it from a form in which the alleged omission was not embodied when he, Force, used it. This criticism is somewhat supported by finding very unexpected statements of a general nature in Shelton's book. For example, we are told that the Revolution set "the slaves free in all the Northern States" (139), and that Betsy Bowen's parents died in "Williamton," in the mountains of North Carolina; and, to make the matter worse, that they died in a "mountain feud" (p. 146). Of course, if they died in the mountains of North Carolina, they died of a "mountain feud," since one dies of nothing else in that region; but Williamston—there is no Williamton in the State—is not in the mountains. In fact, it is quite near the coast.

THIRTY-SIX years ago M. Alexandre Beljame, in his famous treatise, "Le Public et les Hommes de Lettres en Angleterre au Dix-Huitième Siècle (1660–1744)," traced the rise of the profession of letters in England from Dryden's dependence on private patronage through Addison's dependence on political patronage to Pope's independence from either. Now Mr. David Harrison Stevens, in a University of Chicago doctoral dissertation, "Party Politics and English Journalism, 1702–1742" (Menasha, Wis.: Banta Publishing Co.; $1.50), working faithfully within half the general field marked out by his predecessor, has examined more particularly the effect of political patronage upon letters under Queen Anne and Walpole. Over a greater part of the way his progress is for him a dismal one. Being concerned for "pure literature," he deplores the tyranny of the "economic law" which converted Defoe, Steele, Addison, Swift, and dozens of lesser men from promising creative geniuses into politicians or intriguing journalists. These conversions are no news, as indeed the author admits; his real contribution is a number of fresh facts, most interesting perhaps in connection with Addison, that show "how completely" in the early eighteenth century "the literary craftsman was a creature of his age." He imputes contemptible motives to Addison as the literary agent of Walpole not less than to Swift as the literary agent of Bolingbroke. The blackest time for creative literature he finds to have been the years 1710–1714, when the rising

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book industry was checked by Whig and Tory, and subsidized party journals drove such charming periodicals as the *Tatler* and *Spectator* off the board. It is only in the latter half of Walpole's Ministry that he finds any compensating circumstances, and some of these he does well to develop at length: the permanent defeat of private patronage, the establishment of free speech and public opinion, and the creation of a considerable reading public. The last, as it is perhaps the most important feature of the whole time, needs yet further development. M. Beljame made much of it; Mr. Stevens might find it almost compensatory for the acrimony, the dwarfishness of spirit, the want of "altruism" which he maintains were fostered in the Augustan writers more by "temporary political need" and "the economic conditions of literary production" than by "the formulæ of neo-classical rules." Mr. Stevens's assumption that creative genius cannot thrive on affairs is neither important nor convincing; but he has done good service in bringing what he calls his "scattered details" together. He has achieved order by grouping these necessarily miscellaneous details around the careers of the greater journalists of the time. He has lost somewhat in significance by ignoring other periods than the one he works in, and in general the style of the book lacks lustre.

THE publication of "State Constitution Making" (Nashville: Marshall & Bruce Co.) appears to have been owing to its author's conviction that his native State needed a new Constitution. Mr. Wallace McClure, as a Fellow in Columbia University, had made a thorough study of our State and Federal Constitutions, and had reached the conclusion that Tennessee was suffering from "political stagnation"; that "Tennesseeans have failed to keep pace with the general progress of the country as a whole" (pp. 64 and 65). Attempts to amend the fundamental law of 1870 were made in 1897 and in 1904, but failed. A new opportunity was afforded by the Legislature, which authorized the people to vote at a special election in 1916 for and against a constitutional convention. Mr. McClure sought to accelerate public opinion in favor of such a convention. His effort was unsuccessful. The proposal was defeated by a vote of 64,393 to 67,342. These figures must have been doubly disheartening to Mr. McClure and his fellow-progressives, for they disclosed not only an adverse decision, but general lethargy on the part of the electorate, inasmuch as the total vote at the special election was less than half the vote cast for Presidential electors in November. And yet Mr. McClure's effort is worthy of high praise. He presented to his fellow-citizens a history of Constitution making in this country and an analysis of our Federal and State Constitutions which should have convinced them that the Constitution of their own State was in sore need of revision. Part one deals with constitutional development in Tennessee and explains why the existing Constitution is a conservatively laggard body of law. In part two the author expounds, with care and good judgment, current thought and action upon constitutional problems. Part three is devoted to the consideration of reforms most needed in Tennessee. These are enumerated as: "A change in the tax system; changes in county government; abolition of the fee system for county officials; changes in judicial machinery; the abolition of special legislation for cities and counties, and an increase in the functions and powers of the Governor and administrative departments."

Notes from the Capital

Rear-Admiral Goodrich

CONFRONTED by a troublesome situation, most of us have a way of turning our thoughts back, with an interest perhaps more sentimental than substantial, to "what might have been." Doubtless the fact that, in spite of all efforts to keep it out, this nation has finally been drawn into the world war, has revived in the mind of Rear-Admiral Caspar Frederick Goodrich some reflections on how his scheme for conserving international peace, even at the cost of fighting for it, would have affected present conditions if it could have been applied in time. It was a dream of his from youth that the two great English-speaking nations might, by entering into a sort of police partnership, force their bellicose neighbors to behave themselves like sharers in a modern civilization and submit their differences to arbitration. Reduced to its simplest terms, his idea was that, when this twain saw other nations preparing to go to war, they were to step in and advise the peaceful means of settlement; and if one party rejected their overtures and insisted on fighting, Great Britain and the United States were to join forces with its adversaries and help pummel it into a proper respect for good manners. In view of his advocacy of a plan of this sort, it is worthy of note that Goodrich, several years before the latest outbreak of carnage in Europe, called public attention to the fact that Germany, though not having England's geographical or commercial

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excuse for keeping up a big navy, had raised hers to a strength only second to England's. To him this seemed significant, and in the light of more recent events we all are able to recognize its sinister portent; and what would have happened if the bulk of the German navy had been permitted to get out and play on the high seas the part its builders unquestionably had in view for it, we can but conjecture.

The war now in progress exposes, of course, one weakness in the Goodrich programme, namely, the difficulty of making it work in a case where there is no specific ground of dispute between two nations, but where a pretext for a collision is suddenly manufactured by one that has been spoiling for the chance, and a quick succession of events, linked by the interplay of treaties and guarantees among a considerable group of governments, plunges almost an entire continent into bloodshed without warning. It must not be assumed from this misfit, any more than from his original conception of a self-constituted international police, that Goodrich is a visionary person. On the contrary, no officer of the navy has better earned a reputation for well-balanced plans and business-like methods. It was to him that the navy owed its relief, during the brief but efficient administration of Secretary Newberry, from the burdensome bureaucratic system under which the shore stations became breeding-nests of patronage, where waste of public money was going on at an appalling rate, and discipline was demoralized by the diffusion of authority. In every navy yard there were as many separate plants of one kind as there were bureaus using such plants. The Bureau of Yards and Docks, for instance, would have one machine shop, the Bureau of Construction and Repair another, the Bureau of Ordnance a third, and so on through the list—all the shops doing, or being capable of doing, substantially the same thing, but under separate bosses and directed by separate heads in Washington. This necessarily meant duplication of much of the work, a large increase of cost in needless overhead expenses, and the accumulation in the storehouse attached to one shop of a lot of material that could not be used for the present, while some other shop might be hard at work, night and day, making the same kind of things for itself to supply a deficiency.

A private business run on the same senseless plan would have bankrupted itself in short order; but the system had been the growth of years, taking its rise in internal bureaucratic rivalries and jealousies, and remaining operative not because any one could have offered a reasonable excuse for it, but because, every time there seemed a possibility of its being disturbed, some Congressman who was "taking care of" a henchman in one of the superfluous foremanships would prance up to the Navy Department and turn the air blue with denunciations of the threatened interference with his share of the spoils of office. Newberry, fortunately, was built with a backbone and could listen to these rantings without trembling. He sent Goodrich out to make the round of the shore stations and do the job which both of them recognized as essential to save the service from dry rot, and Goodrich did it. He laid his axe to the red-tape used in office methods as well as to the excrescences on plants and rosters, so that it should no longer be necessary for a commandant at a yard to spend his time signing hundreds of formal papers with his own hand which could be signed by subordinates just as well or dispensed with altogether, or to keep five shops running where one would answer all purposes, or to compose conflicts between the under-lords of various bureaus, or to delay the payment of contractors' accounts so that the Government had to pay more for everything it ordered than a private concern making corresponding purchases; and he put the workmen upon a competitive basis for retention and promotion, which eliminated the element of vicious favoritism so far as was humanly possible under the circumstances. Not all these improvements have been retained intact under later Administrations, but the changes made by Newberry during his few months' tenure were so radical that it would take about as much hard work for any successor to restore the whole evil system as was originally spent on building it up; and if Goodrich had nothing else to his credit for the nearly fifty years of his active connection with the naval service, his work as a chopper and pruner would suffice for a record.

The Admiral, who has been on the retired list since early in 1909, is now seventy years old. He has put in some of his leisure in writing for the magazines, which he does very well, and has not confined himself by any means to professional topics. With his business acumen and his versatility, he ought to have his share in our naval councils during the present war. TATTLER

Reviews of Plays

"GHOSTS"

MANY will consider it an open question whether it was worth while for the Washington Square Players to revive Ibsen's unpleasant tragedy, especially as their resources do not appear adequate to give a well-balanced performance of the play. The Players had the invaluable assistance for the week's revival of Miss Mary Shaw, who gave a rendering of Mrs. Alving that was beautiful in its artistry and restraint, and José Ruben's performance of Oswald was a notable one, especially in the last act, in which the horror attendant upon the revelation was envisaged with remarkable skill and dramatic power. The performance would have gained in balance and cumulative intensity by a less emphatic assertion of indisposition in the first act. T. W. Gibson's Jacob Engstrand was an intelligent interpretation of the rôle, but the total inadequacy of the Pastor Manders and the Regina Engstrand makes one a little pessimistic about the development of the Players' power as a repertory company. S. W.

"HIS LITTLE WIDOWS"

MERE high spirits and gayety carry along the musical comedy called "His Little Widows" at the Astor, in default of any particular merit in the libretto or music. The story has a good deal of coherence and is pervaded by a sophomoric strain of repartee that would fall flat were it not delivered with an infectious cheerfulness by the trio of very young men who are the principal fun-makers. One of these young men, bankrupt by the failure of the firm they constitute, learns that his Mormon uncle has willed him his large fortune if he will marry the Mormon uncle's eleven young widows. He is forthwith dragged off to Utah by his equally impecunious comrades, is married, and is held prisoner in his new home by his new wives. The musician has provided one catchy tune which is employed in every act—with variations—and the utmost is made out

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of the comic possibilities of a line of Mormon elders, Frank Lalor the chief of them. One of the best things that can be said of the piece is that it succeeds in avoiding the vulgarity which the situation really makes it hard to avoid.

A. N.

"THE HIGHWAYMAN."

IN pleasing contrast to the usual succession of new but unoriginal musical comedies is the revival at the Forty-fourth Street Theatre of that almost ancient comic opera of Reginald de Koven's, "The Highwayman." Comic opera it is, in the legitimate line of Gilbert and Sullivan, and its revival is almost as welcome as were the annual reappearances of the Gilbert and Sullivan operas, now unhappily discontinued. All that a producer can do has been done for it, except that he might have spared us the modernist setting of the last act, which is quite out of keeping with the spirit of the piece. The cast, however, is excellent. John Charles Thomas, robust in both voice and figure, and delightfully mellow in the former, makes an ideal Captain Scarlet. Opposite him, in the part of Lady Constance Sinclair, sings an exceedingly handsome young lady, Bianca Saroya, who matches him in height and exceeds him in grace, but not in mellowness of tone. Sam Ash does full justice to the rich lyrics attached to the part of Lieutenant Rodney; Jefferson de Angelis is irresistibly amusing as Foxy Quiller, a genuine rôle for really comic opera; Miss Letty Yorke exhibits a properly romantic nature as Dolly Primrose, and Toby Winkle, her partner in romanticism, is well played by Teddy Webb. The large chorus is exceptionally well drilled, and the ensemble numbers are admirably rendered. "The Highwayman" should prove as popular in revival as it did on its first production.

S. W.

Mater Dei

The Rib of the Man. By Charles Rann Kennedy. New York: Harper & Brothers.

THIS is the fourth in the series of seven plays for seven players projected by Charles Rann Kennedy. It will be caviare to the general and a stumbling block to some of his stanchest admirers. To the cynical and skeptical it will appear the work of a rhapsodical sentimentalist and visionary. Only those in sympathy with his sturdy apostolic faith will recognize the inspiring spirituality of his main themes, and even they will regret that high ideals, so eloquently and forcibly expressed, should be blurred by much that is extravagant or intemperate. As drama, notwithstanding the scrupulous and ingenious observance of the classic unities of time and place, and several scenes of intense emotional poignancy and conflict, it is too discursive, too indulgent in all kinds of barbed irrelevancies which confuse and impede the action, however pregnant they may be in themselves.

Mr. Kennedy has the zeal of the prophet and fanatic. It manifests itself in this play in the glorification of ideal womanhood and the Gospel of Peace. He writes with the fervor of an absolute conviction rooted in sentiment rather than reason. In upholding a thesis he mingles romance and realism in bewildering fashion. Some of his hypotheses regarding the mysteries of sex are staggering, as, for instance, the assertion that God, in the beginning, was feminine. This notion, indeed, is the cornerstone of his dramatic structure. The scene is laid in an island of the Ægean, where a famous archæologist has discovered a prehistoric altar, inscribed "To the Mother of the Gods." Upon the evidence of this treasure trove he formulates a revised theological system conferring a special hereditary divinity upon the fairer sex to be manifested in the ideal new woman of the future. Of this privileged race the heroine, Diana Brand, his daughter, embodiment of all civic, mental, and social virtues, is the arch-example. Unfortunately he dies before he can collate his notes, and the making of his book has to be entrusted to David Fleming, a scientist of the modern materialistic school, an unimaginative egoist, who, after making love to Diana, has married her younger and utterly selfish and frivolous sister, Rosie, type of all that is shallowest and most contemptible in the modern butterfly. Diana, outraged, rushes into public life, becomes a leader of the militant suffragists, is imprisoned and forcibly fed, and finally goes to the front as a hospital nurse. After three years of absence, wrongly informed that her sister is about to become a mother, she returns to learn that Rosie has refused the responsibilities of maternity and that her Teutonized brother-in-law has reaped fame and fortune by appropriating the credit of her father's discoveries and deliberately ignoring or falsifying the conclusions he had drawn from them. The scenes in which she denounces Fleming for his treachery, pedantry, and cowardice are among the most dramatic and striking passages of the play. In the end Diana finds a fitting mate in Basil Martin, a daring aviator, who, after a vision of Christ in the clouds—a bit thoroughly characteristic of the author in style and mood—abjures war, patriotism, and nationality, avowing himself the champion of peace and the brotherhood of man. In the closing scene this New Warrior and New Woman join hands in the ideal union, free and spiritual, love without lust.

The drama is one of contrasted character and principle rather than of incident. It is savagely satirical and profoundly evangelical. Each of the seven personages, except one, is an extreme type. Diana, for all her violence, is a noble conception of womanhood. Martin is humanly and spiritually virile. Archie Legge, the philandering man, is silly and contemptible. Rosie is a frivolous fool. Prout, the specialist in sex, is the slave of an obsession. He may be intended for a Darwinian parody. Fleming, the unintelligent, book-crammed product of the schools, without independence or originality of thought, is an unscrupulous egoist and opportunist. Each of these last four is sketched with unhesitating outline and with remorseless consistency and is used as a convenient butt for vagrant shafts of satire. Ion, the ancient gardener, the god in the machine, or rather in the new Eden in which the action is placed—it is he who brings Diana on the scene—is a partly allegorical, partly comical figure, one of those fancies with which Mr. Kennedy loves to add zest to his realism.

To any one who reads the play dispassionately, without reference to personal opinions or prejudices, the conviction will come that the writer has in him the potentialities of an able dramatist—vision, knowledge of humanity, literary and technical skill, descriptive and analytical power, and theatrical instinct. But he is lacking in tolerance and discretion, and to his disdain of these qualities are attributable the chief defects in an otherwise remarkable work.

J. RANKEN TOWSE

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Financial and Economic Review

The Crop Report and Our Harvest Problem

HOW vitally important, to the world at large, was the raising of an abundant crop of American wheat this year, has been known to every one. Even last year, the world's wheat harvest fell a thousand million bushels, or more than 20 per cent., below the harvest of 1915. If the blockaded Russian crop is eliminated from the reckoning, it provided much the smallest available supply in sixteen years.

As the present spring approached, and the probability of another European shortage came into sight, anxious attention was directed to our own grain fields. It was known in April that the so-called "winter wheat," sown in the autumn and harvested the next July, had been damaged by some of the most adverse weather conditions ever known —a winter of severe cold and high winds, without the snow-covering which protects the germinating plant. It was not until the Government's report of a week ago, however, that the actual extent of "winter-killed" acreage was stated. That report showed improvement of nearly 10 per cent. in the crop's condition, as compared with April 1, but the figures showed an abandonment of no less than 12,400,000 acres of the area planted in the autumn—a figure greater by 4,500,000 than the largest loss in any previous season.

The winter crop, yielding on the basis of the Government's estimate only 366,000,000 bushels, would compare with a five-year average of 495,000,000, and with a yield of 673,000,000 as lately as 1915. It indicates the shortest winter crop in thirteen years, and emphasizes unmistakably the need of large increase in the planting of spring wheat and other grains, to meet the urgent requirements of the United States and Europe.

For Europe itself will apparently need to import 500,000,000 bushels of wheat this year, which is more than it actually imported in the season following the harvests of 1914—a season when the United States produced more wheat by 128,000,000 bushels than ever before, and 251,000,000 more than its production of last year. Europe's own present outlook is for a smaller output than in 1916, and perhaps even than in 1914.

Its acreage is curtailed and conditions have not been favorable. Exactly what those conditions have been, it is too early to say. Even the acreage returns are not all in, but most of those received thus far show substantial reduction. In France the winter wheat condition is now reported at 59, or 10 points under last year. Indications are that Russia will have a smaller winter and spring wheat acreage, the severe winter having caused unusually large abandonment, while the internal revolution, the scarcity of money and of seed grain, and the heavy losses entailed by inability during the past two years to care for the wheat after it was raised have disturbed farmers. Apparently, it is incumbent upon Argentina, India, and Australia to make up the deficit.

Two or three considerations should be kept in mind, however, before drawing too sweeping conclusions from last week's report. One is the possibility, always present after a heavy loss in acreage, that the farmers' returns to the Department may have much exaggerated the destruction. All of the recent weekly bulletins have reported the revival, under favoring weather, of fields where the plant had been given up as dead. Another consideration is the fact that the ploughed-up acreage, however large, may always at this time of year be replanted to wheat or other grain. The third and obvious point for which allowance must be made is the outcome, still to be determined, of the spring wheat crop—planted, as it is reasonably sure to be, on one of the largest acreages ever known.

It is, however, too early as yet to make definite calculations on the spring wheat crop. Seeding is fully a week late in some sections, and has not been completed. Just now, the best information in the trade seems to be that there will be little, if any, increase in the total acreage, owing to wet weather over a good part of the largest and richest producing sections of South Dakota and parts of North Dakota. It is possible to seed throughout this month; but it will take unusually good conditions, later on, to bring the crop through in such shape as to escape the early frosts and the black rust. Minnesota is expected to have a moderate increase in acreage, but this will probably be offset by reductions in the Dakotas. Montana is putting in a big spring wheat acreage, but seeding is uncompleted.

The five-year average for our spring wheat crop is 257,000,000 bushels, and its average acreage 18,528,000. Last year's harvest, on 17,956,000 acres, was 158,142,000 bushels. The largest acreage ever harvested was 19,161,000 in 1915, when the crop was a record, of 351,854,000 bushels, the best in the Northwest's history. If it were possible to seed the five-year average this season and to raise sixteen bushels per acre, there would be a spring crop of 296,000,000 bushels, which, with the 390,000,000 bushels of winter wheat that will probably turn out at harvest, would make a crop of 686,000,000 bushels wheat. But even that would hardly exceed actual requirements. If Canada were to raise no more wheat than last year, it would be necessary for this country to reduce consumption, in order to do its duty in the feeding of the world.

Restrictions vs. Resources in France

A SUNDAY or two ago an illustrated Paris newspaper printed, as one of its full-page features, a cartoon representing a young woman selling on the street corner a "Guide to the Restrictions of Paris." Therein, presumably, one might learn all about the things that must or must not be done, when the shops were closed and the theatres open, how gas was dear and coal "out of sight," and the long list of other things which the simple-minded stranger, venturing a sojourn at the capital in time of war, must sedulously attend to if he is to get anything to eat or keep out of trouble. The officers in uniform who were eagerly buying and attentively studying the "Guide" were a sufficient testimony, of course, to the need of some such first aid to the ignorant.

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One who attempts to write history from the documents is likely to realize before long the limitations of written or printed sources, and the necessity of supplementing the veritable texts of statutes and decrees by some knowledge of the way in which the mandates of authority actually work. The necessity is always present, whether the sources are the "documents inédits" of a bygone age, or the newspapers, posters, and official registers of yesterday or to-day. A better illustration of the difficulty could hardly be found than that which is presented by the present régime of "restrictions" in France. A cursory reading of the proclamations and official notices prominently displayed, in large type, on the innumerable bulletin boards, or of the daily newspapers which, in every considerable town, are omnipresent, might easily lead to the conclusion that conditions, especially certain economic and social conditions, are pretty bad. Let me take Paris as an illustration, merely premising that the conditions which obtain in Paris on a large scale are duplicated, with local variations in scope or intensity, throughout France. I purposely confine myself to such facts as are published in official announcements and printed every day in the newspapers, and to conditions which are simply matters of common observation.

To begin with, theatres, concert halls, and moving-picture houses, with a few permitted exceptions, are open only on Thursday, Saturday, and Sunday. On those days the trains of the "Metro," or subway, run until 11 P. M.; on the other four days they stop at 10 P. M. Cafés and restaurants close every evening at nine o'clock. There are virtually no evening lectures or meetings of any sort, save a few on the evenings on which the theatres are open. If you go out to dinner, you must get home by ten, or else walk, for cabs are hard to find at night after that hour. The streets, including the fashionable boulevards, are dimly lighted; only here and there do shops display lights in their show windows; the Louvre and other exhibition buildings are open, and in part only, on the three permitted days, or else are closed altogether. The supply of gas and electricity is rigidly limited, and any excess consumption of gas is charged for at a rate which amounts to a prohibitive fine. At the hotel at which I live, the electric current is turned off at 11:30 P. M.; thereafter one must depend upon candles. The railway service has been greatly reduced; scores of passenger trains have been temporarily discontinued, and the number of coaches on ordinary trains has been strictly limited. Only the other day came a drastic reduction in the amount of excess luggage per passenger which will hereafter be allowed; and travellers who entered France with several trunks may find it difficult, and will certainly find it expensive, to get out with one.

The prime reason for these various restrictions is the scarcity of coal, in itself a matter of great importance. Thanks in part to a long period of severe cold, Paris has had a coal famine. Accumulated stocks dwindled to the vanishing point. The Seine, between Paris and Rouen, was frozen over for several weeks, and the barge traffic, on which Paris depends for its coal, of course ceased. What the cold weather did for Paris, the German submarines and the extraordinary demands upon water and land carriage for military purposes did for Bordeaux and various other places; and there was small inducement to go south in the hope of getting warm. A few weeks ago coal was selling in Paris at 260 francs a ton; I have heard of persons who paid 400 francs. The result, naturally, has been real distress among the poor and in families of small means, and great inconvenience everywhere. Now, happily, the Seine is open, spring is at hand, and coal is arriving again; but prices are still high, the supply is still inadequate, and a survey of private stocks is talked of.

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Equally in evidence, on the surface, is the question of food. The sale of pastry of every sort is prohibited on Tuesday and Wednesday, not only in bakers' shops, but in tea-rooms and restaurants as well. Moreover, only plain bread at least twelve hours old may now be sold, and the sale is by weight. There are no more rolls, no fancy bread, no fresh bread. A reduction or alteration of the proportion of wheat in the bread, and the admixture of rye or other cereals, is under consideration. Sugar can no longer be bought save on presentation of a sugar card, and the issuance of bread cards is impending. The supply of butter and cheese in the Paris market has decreased sharply of late, the falling off being apparently due, in the case of butter, to the fixing of official prices to which many large producers have been loath to respond. It is always difficult to generalize accurately about the cost of living, but it is safe to say that the general level is from two to three times above that which prevailed before the war. Even the newspapers have been brought within the scope of the cartoonist's "Guide," and now appear once or twice a week in a single half-sheet or two pages; and the use of colored inks has been abandoned.

One easily becomes conscious, too, of certain restrictions, now precise, now vague and elusive, upon movement and speech. If you are a foreigner, you of course have a passport; and within four or five days after you arrive, you must visit the courteous Commissaire of Police and obtain a permit to remain. The permit for Paris covers the city and the near-by suburbs, with some exceptions; what the exceptions are you will discover if you try to buy a ticket to the forbidden region, or to go there in a vehicle or on foot. If you change your hotel or pension, you must again see the Commissaire. You learn after a while that the gendarme whom you pass every morning, and who answers your questions so politely and really seems to know everything, knows also who you are, and is in a way responsible for you; and you will be unwise not to have your permit always with you. Your letters are censored, of course; those which you mail to an address in town may

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be days in reaching their destination; and you cannot send a cable for a friend. The newspapers and reviews, too, are censored; blank spaces, broken paragraphs, or even whole white columns testifying to a watchfulness which nothing written or printed escapes. At dinner your neighbor tells you casually of how two spies were quietly shot yesterday and others a week ago; and while you thank heaven that another day has safely passed and that the sombre night finds you, an innocent and unknown stranger, still unmolested, you wonder if to-morrow may not bring the embarrassing experience which you have come nervously to apprehend.

Such are some of the obvious, everyday "restrictions" of Paris and of France. Quite possibly, before this letter is printed, the list may be further extended. If this were the whole story or the only story, a lurid account might easily be written of the privations, the sufferings, the hunger, the cold, and the apprehension which beset an afflicted people; and I greatly fear that more than one American sojourner in France, misled by the surface appearance and inattention to the realities, has unintentionally spread false impressions. What I should like to make clear is that this is not at all the whole story. France is not starving. Its resources are not being drained to the dregs. It is nowhere near the end of its powers. There is no terrorism either of authority or of opinion. There is shortage of this and scarcity of that, of course, for wealth of every sort has been heavily drawn upon. It would be strange, indeed, if such were not the case after more than two and a half years of war. But the observer who should attempt to describe contemporary France in terms of "restrictions" would be guilty of a gross error; and were he to picture it as approaching a state of exhaustion or demoralization, material, intellectual, or moral, he would be guilty of a crime.

So far as the policy of economic restriction is concerned, what are the facts? Briefly, they are these. There is admittedly a shortage of some important articles, both of food and of industry. The war has not only made extraordinary demands upon products of many kinds, but has also greatly decreased, and in some cases entirely absorbed, accumulations, reserves, and remainders. An army cannot be minutely economical of food, clothing, or material, and there has been great wastage of all three, not only from carelessness, but also, and chiefly, from the unavoidable hazards and normal operations of war. Bread trampled in the mud or soaked with rain counts in the statistical column, but it feeds nobody. Many a soldier, going into action with a new uniform, has in less than an hour had his clothing cut from his body in a field hospital; and not infrequently a second outfit of clothing has met the same fate. Thousands of acres of arable land have been occupied by the Germans, and other thousands have been thinned into a desert by military operations. In the agricultural districts, there are practically no able-bodied men of military age remaining; and the labor of older men, or men incapacitated for army service, of women and children, and of prisoners of war has not sufficed to maintain a full normal production. The unprecedented cold of the past winter has injured early vegetables and grains, and some of the Government regulations, like the attempt to fix the price of butter at Paris, have not worked well. Moreover, the enormous demands upon the railways for military transportation have interfered with the distribution of food products, coal, and manufactures; and the submarine warfare has disturbed the importation of such articles as coal and sugar.

After making all due allowance for loss, waste, and interruption of traffic, however, it is nevertheless clear that the food and fuel restrictions which are so much in evidence at the moment are rather of the nature of wise safeguards for the future than confessions of a serious present shortage. The only criticism, indeed, is that certain restrictions have been delayed so long. Broadly speaking, there is no serious lack of food in France. Prices are high, but the markets are singularly well stocked with practically all commodities of ordinary consumption. It is true that one must forego fresh bread altogether, and pastry on certain days, but the supply of bread and pastry is ample. It is true that two-course dinners are now a rule of law; but a two-course meal, supplemented at one end by soup and at the other by cheese, dessert, and coffee, and with all the wine that one is disposed to buy, is quite enough for the ordinary appetite. The shortage of coal has been largely a matter of weather and transport, although the coal supply, so long as large coal areas remain in German hands, will have to be carefully conserved; but the gods are taking care of the weather, the French and British navies seem to be taking care of the submarines, and the receipt of 10,000 goods wagons from England will help to relieve the freight congestion. A proposal to return to the farms 250,000 men from the front has been advanced in the Chambers, and an appeal has been made to school children to help in farm work and gardening. No one pretends that there is an over-abundance, that care is not imperative, or that greater sacrifices may not have to be made as the war goes on; but there is no evidence that France is reaching the limit of its ability to

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feed its army or its people, or that physical deterioration from lack of nourishment has begun to operate. Save among the artists of the Latin quarter, where thriftlessness is proverbial, one will search far in Paris for evidences of a poverty perceptibly greater than in normal times; while begging in the streets, and the petty offences incident to hunger or enforced idleness, are alike rare.

On the other hand, there are striking evidences in some directions of exceptional wealth and prosperity. The displays of costly jewels, gold and other metal work, wood carvings, Oriental rugs, tapestries, toilet preparations, and similar articles of luxury in the shops rival those to be seen in piping times of peace; and dealers testify that sales are large and profitable. A leading dealer in high-grade imported rugs and carpets complains that the demand far exceeds the supply. The plain truth is that a great deal of money has been made in France during the war. Manufacturers of munitions have found their receipts increasing ten-fold or fifty-fold; holders of army contracts of other sorts have profited greatly by them; and a long list of subsidiary businesses have shared in the gains. To this volume of wealth created by the war is to be added another appreciable volume of money brought in by English, Italian, Spanish, and Russian visitors, some of them in military or diplomatic service, others resorting to Paris now, as people of wealth have always resorted to it, for pleasure, dissipation, or mere diversion. And the money is being spent. French *nouveaux riches*—the term has hardly the frivolous connotation that it has had in America—are buying now the pearls and diamonds which they have always coveted, and which they foresee will appreciate rather than decline in value; they are acquiring better houses and furnishing them tastefully, or possessing themselves of country estates. The automobile is, in a way, a barometer of prosperity; and the streets of Paris, where for the first few weeks of the war everybody walked, are alive with automobiles, among them a surprising number of the newest and most expensive makes. The opera and the theatres are crowded at the usual prices, a number of paid lecture courses are well attended, and a long list of bazaars, fairs, sales, concerts, and teas, in aid of hospitals or relief societies, with tickets at seldom less than five francs and often at ten, are liberally patronized.

There is no lack of evidence that the general business of the country, also, is standing the strain well. One must remember that a French merchant is pretty likely to have his capital in actual money, and not in securities, or real estate, or credit at the bank. He can afford, therefore, to do business for a considerable time at a small profit, or even at none at all, so long as his capital continues available and unimpaired. Neither the external appearance of his business nor his manner of living necessarily undergoes any change; he merely holds on where he is, with his money resources as solid as ever. Bankruptcies have always been rare in France, where relatives and friends deem it a matter of honor to help one who becomes embarrassed; and the war has not increased the number of failures. The Lyons fair, March 18-April 1, promises to outdo the fair of 1916, when 1,340 establishments participated, and transactions aggregating 95,000,000 francs were recorded. The output of various books, not relating to the war, continues large, the standard reviews go steadily on their way, and English and American magazines are on sale everywhere. How many French popular magazines, weekly or monthly, are published I do not know, but I have counted more than two score on an ordinary news-stall. These are not the conditions of a people whose wealth is dwindling, whose economic life is being fatally sapped, or whose ability to support the enormous burdens of a great war is approaching its limit.

To just what extent the total wealth of France has been absorbed by the war, it is, of course, impossible to say with accuracy. One would not be rash in estimating, however, that for every franc of productive capital destroyed another franc has been created; and I have heard, in well-informed quarters, even higher estimates. In other words, what makes the great problem of the moment is the fact that the winning of the war no longer depends so much upon the supply of money as upon the supply of men. Whatever may have been true of earlier wars, in this war it will be, not the last piece of gold, but the last man, that will count. If France, safe in the possession of wealth ample for any contingency that can be foreseen, can bring into the field her full resource of men, the victory is hers; if she cannot—but no one in France thinks for a moment of such a possibility. WILLIAM MACDONALD

Paris, March 30

Bank and Trade Acceptances

ONE of the most interesting and progressive features of the Federal Reserve act is that which has to do with acceptances. The Negotiable Instruments law defines a bill of exchange as "an unconditional order in writing addressed by one person to another, signed by the person giving it, requiring the person to whom it is addressed to pay on demand or at a fixed or determinable future time a sum certain in money to order or to bearer." Most business men are more or less familiar with bills of exchange, the most common example perhaps being the ordinary sight draft. When, however, a draft is drawn payable thirty days after sight, the person on whom it is drawn, everything about the transaction being in order, will signify in writing his assent to the order of the drawer. This is usually done by writing across the face of the draft the word "Accepted," together with the date and signature of the drawee. The draft then becomes an acceptance, with which the business public is to a large extent unfamiliar.

The extended use of acceptances in this country dates from the passage of the Federal Reserve act. Prior to that time national banks were not permitted to accept drafts drawn on them and maturing at a future date. The act permits any member bank to accept, up to a total of 50 per cent. of its capital and surplus, drafts having not more than six months' sight to run, (1) which grow out of transactions involving the importation or exportation of goods; (2) which grow out of transactions involving the domestic shipment of goods, provided shipping documents are attached to the draft at the time it is accepted; (3) which are secured at the time of acceptance by a warehouse receipt or other such document covering readily marketable staples.

The granting of this privilege to banks has been responsible for a new term, "dollar exchange," in the banking and commercial centres of the world. Formerly it was necessary for our merchants, when shipping goods to foreign countries, to accept payment through the medium of a

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credit, usually on London. By this is meant that the purchaser of the goods would arrange with a London banker to accept drafts drawn on the banker by the seller of the goods here. This draft was drawn in pounds sterling or the currency of the country where the credit was granted. When he shipped his goods it was necessary for our merchant to receive payment through selling his draft in the foreign exchange market at the current rate of exchange. The foreign banker, of course, charged a commission for issuing the credits, and our merchant was always subject to the fluctuations in foreign exchange. Now, however, our merchant is in a position to negotiate with his customer for the opening of a credit in this country. If this is done, our merchant draws his draft in dollars on the bank issuing the credit and, if desired, after it is accepted he may discount it in the open market, thus receiving his payment in the currency of our own country. Naturally, it is necessary for the purchaser of the goods to place the bank here in funds with which to meet this acceptance at maturity. He may do this through his local bank or he may go into the market and buy dollar exchange, which he can forward to the bank here to meet the payment. As has been stated, dollar exchange is well known throughout the world and the quotations compare favorably with the other exchanges. To provide for a sufficient supply of dollar exchange to meet all requirements, the Federal Reserve act also provides that a member bank may accept up to 50 per cent. of its capital and surplus in bills drawn by banks in foreign countries, where the usage of trade makes it necessary, for the purpose of furnishing such exchange.

When one considers the great growth of our foreign trade in the last few years and the keen interest there is in steps taken to continue its increase, the importance of dollar exchange will be readily appreciated. National banks are not, however, the only ones privileged to accept drafts maturing at a future date. Many of the States permit their State banks and trust companies to accept and many of the larger private banking houses have issued credits. In New York there is no restriction as to the character of the transaction or the amount of bills a State bank or trust company may accept. These banks must not, however, accept a draft maturing more than one year after acceptance.

The Federal Reserve act also provides that the various Reserve banks may rediscount for their member banks or may purchase in the open market the acceptances of member banks and such acceptances of non-member banks and bankers as comply with the restrictions placed on the member banks. The acceptances which may be acquired by the Reserve banks are referred to by bankers and acceptance brokers as "Eligible," while those which the Reserve banks may not acquire are termed "Ineligible." The favor with which bank acceptances are looked upon by the Reserve banks is indicated by the fact that during 1916 all the banks of the system purchased in the open market a total of $386,000,000 of acceptances. The growing use of dollar acceptances may be shown by the fact that during 1915 the total purchases by the Reserve banks were only $65,000,000.

In addition to the purchases by the Federal Reserve banks, there is an active open market in which large quantities of bills are bought and sold on a very close margin. Bankers, as they become better acquainted with acceptances, look on them with more and more favor as an investment for their so-called "secondary reserve." Few bills having more than four months to run appear in the market, and the larger proportion mature within ninety days or less. This short maturity, together with the purchasing power of the Reserve banks and the open market, makes prime eligible acceptances perhaps the most liquid investment a bank can have in its portfolio. In addition to being a desirable investment for banks, they are especially attractive to firms and individuals having funds on hand, which will remain with them for a fixed period. Since the acceptance of a bank is the same obligation as its cashier's check, the only difference being that the acceptance is payable at a fixed future date while the cashier's check is payable on demand, the holder of a well-selected list of acceptances is insured against loss by reason of non-payment.

Besides bank acceptances there is another form of obligation, known as a trade acceptance. As is well known, it is the custom in this country for a merchant to sell on open book account. If litigation arises over any particular transaction, it is necessary for the seller first to prove the correctness of his account. If he needs money, he must go to his bank and borrow on his promissory note. If it is not convenient for the purchaser to pay the account when it is due, he lets it drag along for a short time. There are numerous other evils which may be attributed to the method of selling on open account. A trade acceptance is a draft drawn on the purchaser of goods by the seller and accepted by the purchaser. Let us take, for example, a wholesaler handling a line of goods where the terms call for payment thirty days after date of invoice. Instead of simply sending his customer a bill, the wholesale merchant would draw a draft on his customer payable thirty days after sight. The details of the transaction being in order, the purchaser would write the word "accepted" across the face of the draft, together with the date and his signature, and it would be returned to the seller. The acceptance is then the obligation of the purchaser, and since he has acknowledged the correctness of the transaction he is not in a position to dispute the matter. The drawer of the bill is, of course, liable until it is paid, and we have two-name paper, having the obligation of both the buyer and the seller. The Federal Reserve banks quote a preferential rate for the rediscount of such paper over the ordinary single-name commercial paper. The seller should, therefore, if in need of funds, be able to take this paper to his bank and discount it at a better rate than he could obtain for his single-name paper. The purchaser, being jealous of his credit and knowing that this obligation falls due on a certain date, will make every effort to pay it rather than have it go to protest, and if he meets such obligations promptly, his credit is improved and all parties to the transaction have been benefited.

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Many business men are, of course, loath to change from the present archaic methods, but the use of trade acceptances is slowly gaining headway. Credit organizations and other trade bodies are taking an active interest in fostering their use, and as time goes on we may expect to see this class of obligation being used to such an extent as to place the business of the country on a really sound, scientific basis.

CHARLES S. WALL

"Pitt's Subsidies"

THERE have been many notable historical parallels in this war which brought suddenly into the twentieth century's practical consideration military policies and expedients that we had read about in the story of wars long past, but had thought of as incidents forever dismissed from history. Not every one is aware, however, how curiously history has repeated itself in a very different direction—in the $4,500,000,000 or so advanced to her Continental allies by England since the war began, and in the $3,000,000,000 appropriated for the purpose by our Government last month. These are a very interesting reminder. Probably Germany has talked about them with the same mixture of consternation and bewilderment as the people of Paris showed, a little over a century ago, when they discussed "Pitt's subsidies."

At the end of the eighteenth century, in the Napoleonic wars, the armies of the Allies arrayed against Bonaparte had suffered defeat after defeat. They were discouraged; internal dissensions broke out. It was desperately necessary for England to keep her allies in line. The British navy was efficient; victory had followed victory on the sea. But the British armies were small, mismanaged, disorganized; they had not yet won a victory; they were of negligible help to England's allies. In order to keep the coalition going, England would have to give more aid. England was rich. Her financial position was stronger than that of her enemy or of any of her allies. William Pitt was Prime Minister, and he decided to grant to the allies financial aid.

The aid was in two forms: outright gifts and the guarantee of loans. Most of it went to impecunious German kings and princes. The records of the Exchequer show that during Pitt's Governments, from 1793 to 1805, actual gifts were granted to Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Sardinia, Prussia, Hesse-Darmstadt, Baden, Brunswick, Portugal, Prince of Orange, Russia, Germany, the German Princes, Bavaria, and Sweden. The initial money grants were in the form of gifts. The first of "Pitt's subsidies" was one of nearly two and a half million dollars to Hanover, in 1793. Then followed a series of subsidies from time to time to the various states or potentates opposed to Napoleon, to the German and Austrian kingdoms, to Russia, to Portugal, to Sweden. A sum equivalent to six million dollars was given to Prussia in 1794; four million went to Russia in 1799; more than five million went to Germany in 1800; and by 1805 more than $45,000,000 had been given away.

The circumstances surrounding some of these gifts are very interesting. As the war continued, the military superiority of France increased. In April, 1795, Prussia came to terms with Napoleon; in June, Sweden; in July, Spain. The Court of Vienna continued its readiness to receive subsidies from England, but in other respects it showed little activity. Windham, the British War Minister at the time, built his greatest hopes on an expedition of French aristocrats and malcontents to Quiberon Bay; but this force, sumptuously provided with money and munitions of war, and supported by a powerful fleet, was almost annihilated as soon as it landed.

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In 1796 a general election increased Pitt's majority. While it was proceeding, he sent on his own responsibility a subsidy of $6,000,000 to Austria. The act was fiercely criticised by the Opposition, and only condoned by the House of Commons on the express stipulation that it should not be considered a precedent. In April, 1797, Austria, England's last ally, laid down her arms and concluded a preliminary treaty of peace.

England's two adventures in guaranteeing loans, somewhat similar to the present method of financial aid by our Government, were unhappy. Under an act passed in May, 1795, to give effect to a convention between Great Britain and the potentate at Vienna who was then styled Emperor of Germany, was provision for a loan for $23,000,000. This was to be raised by the Emperor, but in consideration of maintenance by Austria of 200,000 troops in the war against France, it was stipulated that Great Britain should guarantee the interest on this loan. After the first two years, however, Austria failed to provide the money, and, on various more or less plausible pretexts, repudiated the contract. The burden fell on the British Exchequer. At a similar convention concluded in May, 1797, a loan of $8,000,000 was arranged and guaranteed on the same conditions. But the charge again fell entirely on the British Exchequer, as Austria was unable to pay anything.

Pitt died in 1806, but his policy of subsidies continued. As late in the Napoleonic wars as March, 1814, while futile arrangements for an armistice were undertaken by the Allies, the representatives of Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia bound themselves at Chaumont not to treat singly with France for peace, but to continue the war until France was brought back to her old frontiers, and the complete independence of Germany, Holland, Switzerland, and Spain secured. Each of the four Powers was to maintain 150,000 men in the field; and Britain agreed to aid her allies with equal yearly subsidies, amounting in all to $25,000,000 for the year 1814.

The English representative at this conference was Viscount Castlereagh, but for whose determination (and promises of financial help) it was believed that the alliance against Napoleon might have broken up. He adopted a firm tone. He pressed upon the Austrians the vigorous continuance of the war. The Continental Powers were induced to keep up the fight, largely because it had been at Castlereagh's instance that, in 1813, the British Gov-

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ernment raised its subsidies to foreign Powers that year to $50,000,000, though the year's expenditures of England herself had reached $585,000,000.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

Davray, H. D. Lord Kitchener: His Work and His Prestige. T. Fisher Unwin.

Humphreys, A. L. A Handbook to County Bibliography. Privately printed.

Recollections and Correspondence of Major-General Sir Henry Hallam Parr. Edited by C. Fortescue-Brickdale. T. Fisher-Unwin. 15s. net.

POETRY

Candisataka, B. The Sanskrit Poems of Mayura. Edited by G. P. Quackenbos. Columbia University Press. $1.50 net.

Gurner, R. War's Echo. T. Fisher Unwin. 1s. net.

Hazard, C. The Yosemite and Other Verse. Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.

Litchfield, G. D. The Song of the Sirens. Putnam.

Shepard, O. A Lonely Flute. Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.

SCIENCE

Croy, M. S. One Thousand Things Mothers Should Know. Putnam. $1.50 net.

Northup, E. F. Laws of Physical Science. Lippincott. $2 net.

Piper, C. V., and Oakley, R. A. Turf for Golf Courses. Macmillan. $2.50 net.

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Charles Lamb to a Young Author

My dear young Scrivener:

You have asked my advice in regard to submitting your manuscript to the Yale University Press, and as I had no knowledge of that house other than that gained from an enjoyment of its books, I have made your request the excuse for a visit to it.

Mindful of your work, I inquired first of all who passed upon the manuscripts submitted to them, and here I discovered one of the great advantages of a University Press. For to determine what shall be published and what rejected, their manuscripts are submitted to a University Committee, which is able to call to its assistance the trained opinion of the entire University body. (I can see that Committee in my mind's eye — a wise group. Imagine them smiling with pleasure as they vote upon so scholarly a work as Porter's "Lombard Architecture."[1])

I made inquiry also regarding their selling department. (My experience in royalties has been just enough to make me mindful of its function.) I found their book "Civilization and Climate"[2] in its Second Printing, "The Fundamental Basis of Nutrition"[3] (a timely book in these days of high food costs, of which I purchased a copy) in its Fourth, and "The Diplomatic Background of the War"[4] in its Fourth Printing—a certain proof that their sales methods are effective. Indeed, I saw them preparing royalty checks which I should not have been humbled to receive.

The attractive dress of the books of this house was, if I recall rightly, what originally drew you to them, so that I need not be led on to describe their appearance. My taste was especially tickled by "The Growth of Medicine,"[5] for the lore of the Middle Ages and enticingly illustrated.

In short, I would have you send your manuscript to them, i. e., providing that it is a good manuscript; for unless it be a work of merit, it will be returned.

Consult your bookseller if he is a man of discretion, he will show their books. Have him show you a volume after my own liking, "Journeys to Bagdad."[6]

Call on me if I can serve you further, and believe me,

Yours very sincerely,
CHARLES LAMB.

[1] LOMBARD ARCHITECTURE. By Arthur Kingsley Porter. 4 *vols.* $50.00 *net per set.*

[2] CIVILIZATION AND CLIMATE. By Ellsworth Huntington. (*Second Printing.*) $2.50 *net.*

[3] THE FUNDAMENTAL BASIS OF NUTRITION. By Graham Lusk. (*Fourth Printing.*) 50 *cents net.*

[4] THE DIPLOMATIC BACKGROUND OF THE WAR, 1870-1914. By Charles Seymour. (*Fourth Printing.*) $2.00 *net.*

[5] THE GROWTH OF MEDICINE, from the Earliest Times to About 1800. By Albert H. Buck. 28 *illustrations.* (*Second Printing.*) $5.00 *net.*

[6] JOURNEYS TO BAGDAD. By Charles S. Brooks. (*Third Printing.*) 27 *woodcuts.* $1.50 *net.*

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Summary of the News

PROFOUND gloom, one suspects more simulated than real, has been the dominating note of a considerable section of the press in reviewing the country's preparations for war. It is perfectly true that Congress has made haste rather torpidly in providing the necessary legislation; but all this is one of the defects of democracy's qualities, as probably our allies, in the light of their own past experience, realize more sympathetically than some of our own impatient editors. At any rate, there seems to be good prospect that by the time the *Nation* appears the Draft bill will have become law. Agreement was reached in conference on May 10, the age of liability being established at twenty-one to thirty, and the "Roosevelt" amendment being dropped. The latter was, however, restored when the measure went back to the House by a vote of 215 to 178.

PREPARATION in other respects appears to be proceeding with about as much smoothness as could reasonably be expected. The Espionage bill has been thrown into conference by the decision of the Senate to strike from it all reference to censorship, and the prospect is, unless the Administration makes superhuman exertions, that the right of free speech will finally be vindicated. The important embargo clause of the bill, empowering the President to exclude American exports from countries adjacent to Germany, was passed by the Senate last week, after considerable discussion. An embargo of a different nature, on news, has been declared by executive action of Mr. Lansing, the effect of which is apparently to shut the door of the State Department upon all information regarding foreign relations except such items as the Secretary of State himself shall be pleased to make known.

THE War Taxation bill was reported out of the House Ways and Means Committee on May 9, and is at present under discussion by the House, where some of its provisions have been vigorously assailed. Mr. Kitchin's frank admission, that he would vote for it with his "eyes shut" probably reflects pretty accurately the attitude of a considerable number of members. Details of the bill were published in the papers of May 8. Details of the "Liberty Bond" issue were given out by Mr. McAdoo on the following day. The smallest bond is of $50, and the Secretary of the Treasury contemplates a vigorous campaign of publicity to insure the success of the issue. A loan of $75,000,000 to the French and Belgian Governments jointly for relief in France and Belgium was arranged on May 9.

SHIPS and food, dominating and interrelated questions, have received attention. Announcement of the purchase of seven Austrian merchantmen by the Federal Shipping Board was made on May 9, the American owners, who had recently bought the vessels, having patriotically sacrificed profit on the transaction. On the same day President Wilson initiated a plan, calling for immediate appropriations of half a billion dollars, with authorizations running the total up to nearly a billion, for hastening the work of ship construction. The plan contemplates the unification by governmental control of all the various agencies of shipbuilding. The Administration is urging quick action on the various food bills, and dispatches from Washington last week spoke of the possibility of the appointment of Mr. Hoover as a food controller. The official estimates of the winter-wheat crop on May 1 forecast the yield at 266,000,000 bushels, the lowest in thirteen years.

NEW YORK last week gave a rousing welcome to the French and British Missions. Marshal Joffre, arriving with M. Viviani and other members of the French Mission on May 9, was the recipient of such an ovation as surpassed any extended to a distinguished visitor in the history of New York, and the reception accorded to Mr. Balfour and his fellow-commissioners on Friday was only less clamorous by a nuance of emotion, corresponding to the difference in popular appeal of the military hero (and such a hero!) and the civilian statesman. An appropriate climax to the visit was a banquet given by the city to the two Missions at the Waldorf-Astoria on Friday night. Marshal Joffre was greeted rapturously by Boston on Saturday, and M. Viviani on Sunday.

A PATHETIC sequel to the visit of the two Missions was the death from heart failure on Monday night of Mr. Joseph Hodges Choate at the age of eighty-five. Mr. Choate had been indefatigable all last week in welcoming the city's guests, he himself being, as the Mayor described him, "New York's foremost citizen." He had served constantly and always with effect in the rich, resonant tones which seemed to defy the years, but his exertions undoubtedly hastened the end, which came, as he would have chosen, in the service of his country.

RUSSIAN freedom is apparently trembling in the balance. As we write, the situation is extremely grave and the issue uncertain. The Council of Soldiers' and Workmen's Delegates, without the power to control either the soldiers at the front or the millions outside of Petrograd, has overridden persistently the authority of the Provisional Government until its position has become well nigh intolerable. The crisis was brought to a head on May 5 by the resignation of M. Guchkov, Minister of War, closely following that of Gen. Alexeiev, commander of the Petrograd garrison. M. Guchkov resigned on account of the dualism, even polyarchy, which threatens to have consequences fatal to the defence, the liberty, and even the existence of Russia." Gen. Kornilov's resignation was prompted by virtually the same reasons. An offer to the Council of Soldiers' and Workmen's Delegates to join in the formation of a coalition Ministry was refused last week, and the Council proceeded to draft resolutions looking to the calling of a conference of the Socialist Internationale. After the events of Monday the Council apparently took fright and issued an appeal to the army to save Russia from German imperialism, warning the soldiers against fraternizing with the enemy. In Washington much is thought to depend on the mission headed by Mr. Root, to whom, it is stated, very wide authority has been given.

SUBMARINES were less destructive in the week ending May 6. The British official report records losses in that week of twenty-four vessels of more and twenty-two of less than 1,600 tons. Thirty-four ships were unsuccessfully attacked. Arrivals were 2,374; sailings, 2,499. Dis-

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patches from Washington of May 11 stated that the Italian Embassy had received information that during the past few weeks thirteen Austrian submarines had been sunk in the Adriatic by Italian patrols. British naval forces conducted a bombardment of the German submarine base at Zeebrugge on May 12. Unofficial dispatches from Rotterdam state that a considerable amount of damage was done, which the official report of Berlin denies.

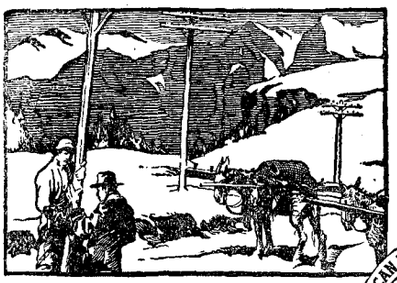
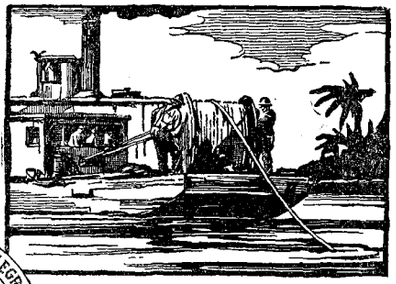
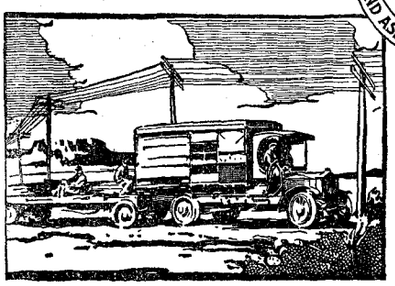
SECRET sessions of the House of Commons were held last week, in the course of which Ministers replied to a general discussion of the war initiated by Mr. Churchill. Mr. Lloyd George's statement appears to have been in the main encouraging, amplifying his recent remarks at the Guildhall. In particular, the navy and the submarine warfare were discussed, and questions raised were answered by the Premier and Sir Edward Carson. Full figures of the tonnage sunk since last August were given to the House, but Sir Edward Carson declined, on grounds of expediency, to alter the form in which losses by mines and submarines are at present announced, a form, he said, agreed upon among the Allies.

NOTHING further has been heard at the moment of writing of Mr. Lloyd George's address, many times postponed, on the Irish question. The seriousness of the situation was emphasized last week by the return to Parliament of a Sinn Feiner by a majority of thirty-seven over the Nationalist member.

LIBERIA must be added to the list of nations whose self-respect can no longer tolerate diplomatic intercourse with Germany, and Haiti, who has sent a protest to Berlin on the submarine question, seems inclined to align herself in this matter with other democratic nations.

GERMANY, judging from the dispatches, which must be read always with the fact of the censorship clearly in mind, is still in the throes of the struggle that centres upon the figure of the Chancellor. His projected speech on aims of the war, by this time almost legendary, was to be delivered in the Reichstag on Tuesday. Meanwhile the Junkers apparently grow more self-assertive, appealing to the Kaiser to heed his old friends and have less to do with the alleged reforms suggested by von Bethmann-Hollweg. Hindenburg also has been brought into the discussion, being represented as highly incensed over the recent recommendations of the Reichstag Committee on Constitutional Reform for extending some kind of parliamentary control to the army and navy. The general view seems to be, however, that the Chancellor will weather the present storm as he has weathered others.

GERMAN counter-attacks recaptured Fresnoy early last week, and subsequent efforts of the British failed to regain all of the lost ground. Important progress was, however, made at the end of the week north of the Scarpe, where the famous chemical works of Rœux and the village itself have passed into British hands. Bullecourt is also partially occupied. The Salonica front awakened into activity last week, Bulgar positions having been taken by Gen. Sarrail's troops in operations in which the Venizelist volunteers assisted. A heavy bombardment on the Italian front may be the prelude to the launching of an offensive there.

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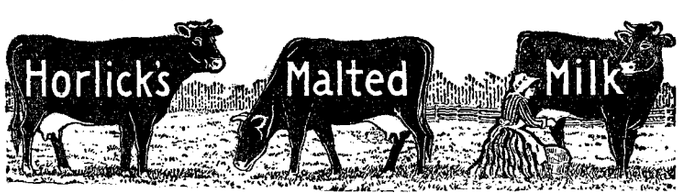

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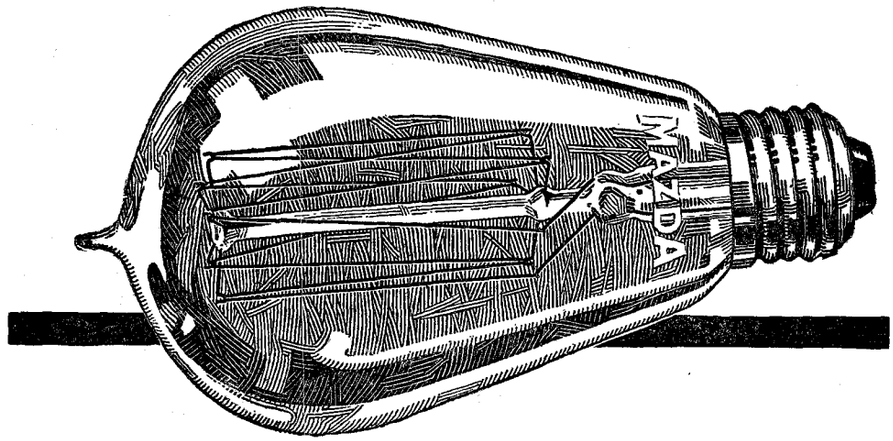

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